The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 30, 1889.

The Week.

Two more names must be added to the list of Harrison's relations who have received "plums" from the President's hands. Col. D. W. McClung, a cousin-in-law, his wife's father being a brother of the President's father, has been appointed Internal-Revenue Collector of the First Ohio District. It is further announced by the *World* that Lieut. Parker of the United States Navy, who has been assigned to the pleasant post of naval attaché to the Samoan Commission during its sojourn in Berlin, married a niece of Mrs. Harrison, and is, therefore, a nephew-in-law of the President. At the time of his assignment he was stationed at Mare Island Navy-yard, at San Francisco, but the Presidential eye, made keen by the determination for self-satisfaction, at whatever cost, was able to discover him and bring him East in time to start for Germany with the commissioners. The amended list of family office-holders now reads:

(1.) The President's brother.
(2.) The President's father-in-law.
(3.) The father-in-law of the President's son.
(4.) The brother of the husband of the President's daughter.
(5.) The husband of the daughter of the President's brother.
(6.) The husband of the niece of the President's wife.

We should like to appeal to the Cleveland *Leader* for information as to the proper definition of "nepotism," which it declared meant the appointment of "several" relatives to office. Do six relatives fill the bill?

On the 26th of March, 1886, Benjamin Harrison, then United States Senator from Indiana, delivered in the Senate a long speech, arraigning Grover Cleveland for breach of his pledges in the matter of civil-service reform. One of the chief counts in this indictment was what Gen. Harrison called "the story of Mrs. De la Hunt," his telling of which occupies the greater part of one of the large pages of the *Congressional Record*, vol. xvii., part 3, page 2794. "I have another case," Gen. Harrison began; "I do not know how it may seem to the Senate, but to me it is infinitely full of pathos and indignation." He proceeded to describe the military career of Maj. De la Hunt of the Twenty-sixth Indiana Volunteers, who was brought down by a wound entirely through the body, at Prairie Grove in Arkansas, and, after recovering from this desperate wound, rejoined his command and received a bullet through his arm. "Disabled by these two wounds received in his country's service, he was compelled to leave the army and return to Perry County, Indiana. But his days were few. His vital forces had been so sapped by the wounds which he had received that it was not long until a sorrowing widow and one only child followed the remains of as brave a soldier as ever went out from Indiana to his last resting-place in the grave." Maj. De la Hunt left his widow with small means, and she entered upon the work of maintaining herself and her boy. Her old father was Postmaster at Cannelton, and she became his deputy, in which capacity Gen. Harrison testified that she was "most efficient." Shortly before the expiration of President Arthur's term, said Gen. Harrison, "Isabelle De la Hunt, the widow, was appointed, on my request, by Gen. Hatton, then Postmaster-General, to this little post-office." "If there was in all this country," continued Gen. Harrison, "one person who by reason of her sex, who by reason of her widowhood, who by reason of the sacrifice she had made in giving the arm on which she leaned to her country's service, was entitled to be kept in office, was entitled to have her reputation guarded jealously and by all men who represented the Government, it was Isabelle De la Hunt." Nevertheless, the Cleveland Administration removed Mrs. De la Hunt, on the false charge of "offensive partisanship," and appointed a Democratic "worker" in her place.

The Cleveland Administration having gone out, and Gen. Harrison having become President, Mrs. De la Hunt applied for restoration to her old position as postmaster. There was no doubt as to her fitness. The present President publicly testified three years ago to the fact that she had been "most efficient." There was no doubt as to her title to the office. The present President on the same occasion bore witness to it, as above. There was no doubt as to local sentiment demanding the restoration of this most efficient and worthy person to her old office. She presented a petition more numerously signed than that of any other applicant, and representing an overwhelming majority of the patrons of the office. Of course, she was reappointed to her old position as soon as her old champion, Benjamin Harrison, became President? On the contrary, the office has been given to John Zimmerman, who has been Chairman of the Republican County Committee, and whose only claim to the place is party service. In preference to any comments of our own, we simply reprint the comments of Benjamin Harrison:

"Now, Mr. President, perhaps my distinguished friend from Kansas, whose command of language so far surpasses my own, might characterize this transaction, perhaps he could touch it up a little; but to me that work is impossible. *The story of Mrs. De la Hunt carries its own pathos and its own indignation.*"

There was a rather sombre interview between Senator Farwell and the President touching the appointment of Mr. Wilcox as Collector of Internal Revenue in the Springfield District. The version given by the former to a Chicago newspaper says:

"I told him this appointment belonged strictly to Senatorial patronage, which was already very meagre in comparison with that of Representatives, and should not be further abridged. I told him that Senator Cullom and I had consulted about a proper person to appoint to fill this vacancy, and intended in due time to make our wishes known. Under these circumstances, I told him, we regarded the appointment of Wilcox, without consulting us, as a violation of established custom and as extremely invidious towards Senator Cullom. I told him that Springfield was Senator Cullom's home, and that to make that appointment and in that way was tantamount to a declaration of war on Senator Cullom, and, indeed, a blow between the eyes. I entreated him and appealed to him, in the interests of justice and humanity, to revise his action. My appeal had no effect."

If any such words were spoken by the Senator from Illinois, they probably had an effect quite the contrary of what was intended. Such language assumes, in the first place, that an old Senator, like Mr. Harrison, needs to be told by a new Senator, like Mr. Farwell, what appointments "belong strictly to Senatorial patronage." Mr. Harrison does not need any instruction under that head. Nor does he need to be told that Mr. Farwell and Mr. Cullom had taken this particular appointment under advisement and intended to let him know their decision in due time. Considering that these Senators have no constitutional right even to know who is appointed until the name comes before them for their official action, it is a remarkable exhibition of assurance to tell the President that *they* were giving diligent attention to a subject which was his sole and exclusive business. The naïveté of Mr. Farwell's observations marks an advanced stage of ideas respecting the uses of patronage. It has been customary heretofore to fight out such battles in secret. When a Senator takes the public into his confidence, and appeals to the neighborhood for support against the President because the latter has done what the Constitution expressly authorizes and requires him to do, it is a sign that the ideas prevailing in George Washington's time on this subject have been turned topsy-turvy.

The thoroughly commercial character of the current Republican conception of public office was brought out strongly by the interview which the delegation of patronage-seekers from Brooklyn had with the President on Thursday. They went to urge, among other things, the appointment of Theodore B. Willis as Surveyor of the Port of New York, and their chief argument was that Mr. Willis came from a ward in Brooklyn which "was made famous by the fact that it had alone raised a contribution of $50,000 for the campaign fund." The President showed no surprise that the money basis for the claim should be revealed so frankly, probably because he is accustomed to that kind of thing now.

The whole energy of the Republican press is now devoted to efforts at proving that Harrison is no worse than Cleveland. As a matter of fact these efforts are unsuccessful. Harrison is not doing as well as Cleveland. The latter came into office as the representative of a party which "had not had a smell of the offices" for twenty-five years, and yet he

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allowed the larger proportion of the Republican incumbents of four-year offices to serve out their terms, so that the commissions of Republican postmasters were expiring all through the last months of his Administration. Harrison, on the other hand, although representing a party which controlled all the offices from 1861 to 1885, and a large share of the most important ones for longer or shorter periods between 1885 and 1889, removes efficient public servants in the middle of their terms, openly and avowedly because they are Democrats. Cleveland took for his rule of conduct—although he did not live up to it in many cases—the principle that the public interest should decide whether or not a Republican incumbent should be retained. Harrison accepts that article of the Republican creed which holds that a Democratic office-holder has no rights which a Republican President is bound to respect; that, indeed, the ten commandments, strictly interpreted, contain a prohibition against any Democrat's drawing a salary out of the Federal Treasury. Any candid person, contrasting the moderation exhibited by the Democratic Administration four years ago with the rapacity now shown by the Republicans, must confess that it is not true that Harrison is no worse than Cleveland.

The visit of Civil-Service Commissioner Roosevelt to the Custom-house has occasioned some disturbance in the councils of the local examining board. This is the best possible evidence that Mr. Roosevelt's presence was needed. The most insidious danger that threatens the Civil-Service Law is infidelity and treachery on the part of those appointed to administer it. The politicians and henchmen for a long time refused to believe that the law was meant to include them. They thought that it was only intended for greenhorns. When they found that it really did apply to them as well as others, they set about plans for circumventing it. One plan was to establish an underground connection with the examining boards. We have long suspected that a private runway of this kind existed at the Custom-house. Mr. Roosevelt appears to have secured a thread to the labyrinth, and has made a good beginning, and we hope, and have no doubt, that he will follow it whithersoever it leads.

Three more States are likely to be added to the list of those enacting ballot-reform laws before the present legislative year closes, bringing the total up to eleven. The Connecticut House passed on Wednesday week an excellent bill, by a vote of 183 to 9, the opposition being made up of 5 Republicans and 4 Democrats. Many Democratic members voted with the Republicans in favor of the bill, though they would have liked it better had it contained a provision for the grouping of candidates' names by parties. It has since passed the Senate and now awaits the approval of the Governor. A bill containing the principal provisions of the Australian system passed one house of the Illinois Legislature on the same day, and one has been reported from Committee to the Michigan Legislature, and its passage is said to be assured.

There appears to be a very general consensus of opinion in Connecticut that its present Legislative Assembly has proved itself to be the most venal and corrupt that ever has figured in the experience of the State. The measure of chief interest and importance that has been before it was the application of the Housatonic Railroad Company to be allowed to construct certain branch roads, which, if constructed, it was perfectly well understood, would, in connection with existing lines, practically constitute a parallel and competing road with the New York and New Haven Railroad; and such a result of course it was for the interest of the latter road to obstruct and prevent. The matter came up originally on petition of the Housatonic corporation, was referred to the appropriate committees, was argued pro and con by able counsel, and finally reported on adversely by a majority of the Committee. The question whether the public interest would be promoted by a parallel and competing road was the least of the considerations before the House, although some attention was given in a perfunctory way to that branch of the subject. It was early perceived that money would decide the question one way or the other. The scent of carrion is not more potent to draw buzzards to its neighborhood than was the prospect of boodle to bring all the outside legislative talent to the lobbies of the State House at Hartford. As these people never work for fun, it is to be presumed that they were duly commissioned and had their pockets filled by the high contesting parties. As the work went on, nearly all pretence of secrecy was abandoned. There may have been other similar experiences in Pennsylvania, under Kemble's management, or in South Carolina under the rule of Moses, but New England has never before seen anything comparable with it in its Legislative Assemblies. Liquor flowed like water, although a majority of this precious Legislature voted in favor of constitutional prohibition. There was carousing by day and carousing by night on the part of the ingenuous workers and their friends; and every restaurant in Hartford that could satisfy the hungry and thirsty, and had an apartment where things could be talked over confidentially, enjoyed an increased run of business. Under such circumstances, conversions went on rapidly, and in the main adversely to the Housatonic.

The Vedder Liquor-Tax Bill, as finally passed by the late Legislature and sent to Gov. Hill, is a very different measure from what it was as passed by previous Legislatures. We criticised it in its former shape very severely because it taxed the liquor traffic in New York and Brooklyn from two to thirteen times as heavily as in other parts of the State, and made the entire proceeds of the tax go into the State Treasury. Our objection was that the cities of New York and Brooklyn would be thus compelled to pay about three-fourths of a tax which was estimated as likely to amount to over $3,000,000 annually, the remainder of the State paying only one-fourth. New York city alone would have had to pay nearly two-thirds of the entire tax. We urged that the tax ought to be uniform over all parts of the State, and that the proceeds from each county should go into that county's treasury, rather than into the State Treasury. Mr. Vedder has finally come to our way of thinking, for his bill as passed levies a uniform tax of $100 upon all sellers under what is known as a full liquor license, and $20 upon those selling under a beer license, and provides that while the proceeds shall be paid into the State Treasury, each county shall be credited with the full amount collected from the traffic within its limits, the same to be deducted from its State tax. This makes the measure a desirable one in every respect. It levies a reasonable tax upon the traffic which is certain to be collected, because the duty of its collection will belong to the regular State officials, and payment can no more be avoided than in the case of any other State tax. It would be a tax over and above all existing license and excise fees, and would operate as a distinct and important check upon the traffic. In many parts of the State it would much more than double existing license rates. In Brooklyn the liquor-license fee is only $100, while in many of the smaller cities of the State the fee runs as low as $50. If the Governor cannot make up his mind to sign the Excise Bill which is before him, he ought certainly to be able to approve this Tax Bill. It will be very difficult for him to find plausible reasons for not signing it.

The Mayor has now made twenty-three important appointments to public office, and, with a single exception, every salaried position has been given to a man who is either a member or about to become a member of Tammany Hall. In his letter of acceptance, the Mayor himself set the standard by which his conduct should be judged. He declared in that letter that the success or failure of any Mayor's administration "will ultimately depend upon the manner in which he shall exercise the appointing power," and as a pledge of the way in which he proposed to exercise it he said: "I shall prescribe no other test than honesty and special capacity for the offices to be filled. . . . I pledge myself to be guided in its exercise solely by a determination to secure for the people the very highest order of public servants that the citizenship of the county affords. . . . The municipal offices are the property of the people. I would have no more right to use the public service for my own purposes than to use the public treasury to pay my private debts. . . . In exercising the appointing power, I will not be moved by considerations of personal friendship, nor will I be affected by any individual preferences." Measured by this self-imposed standard, an overwhelming majority of the twenty-three appointments are ludicrously wanting in nearly every respect. All the most important positions have been filled by personal friends or "cronies." This

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is so obviously the case that the Mayor, five months after coming into office, finds himself without a single city newspaper of any standing which is able to defend him. Those which had most faith in him at the outset are now his severest critics.

The Detroit *Tribune's* blighting exposure of Prof. H. C. Adams's lectures on political economy in the University of Michigan has brought out a great deal of "testimony" from members of the State Legislature. Mr. F. F. Hoaglin, Chairman of the House Committee on Municipal Corporations, writes to the *Tribune* to say that "new text-books should be adopted in the University which will teach something nearer to American ideas." Senator Chapman thinks that "it is high time our boys were hearing both sides of this question, and having text-books of both complexions in their hands." Senator Fox is of the same opinion, but he makes the natural mistake of saying that there is an abundance of literature on the side opposed to Prof. Adams, meaning that there are plenty of text-books to be put into the hands of students that would refute Prof. Adams. Would not these simple-minded Senators mention the titles of some of these text-books? We have never heard of them. We know the contents of most of the text-books of political economy in the English language. We do not know a single one that teaches or supports the doctrines to which the Republican party is now committed. We therefore repeat our suggestion that the editor of the Detroit *Tribune* should prepare one for use in the University of Michigan. As it is not likely that a Faculty which tolerates the heresies of Prof. Adams would approve such a text-book, it might be submitted to the criticism of Representative Hoaglin and Senators Chapman and Fox. Fortified with a text-book so certified, the University of Michigan would undoubtedly draw students from all parts of the English-speaking world.

Society is deeply stirred at Quincy, Ill., by the death from croup of an infant whose mother was a "Christian scientist." When the child became ill, a practitioner of Christian science, one Mrs. Dr. Hinckley, was called, and, after making a diagnosis, said that it was a mistake to suppose that the infant was sick. On the contrary, it was well. It could not be alleged that the child had a "belief," and that this belief was the cause of its apparent distress, since it was too young to have beliefs extending beyond the range of the nursing bottle. But that it was not sick was the confident assurance of Mrs. Dr. Hinckly. An hour and a half later, when the mother lifted the child out of its cradle, it was dead. No regular physician was called until it became necessary to procure a burial certificate. Then the facts became known. The mother was not an ignorant woman. She was a person moving in the best society of the place. She was not a heartless woman. On the contrary, she was and is nearly distracted with grief at the loss of her babe. Her understanding of the mishap is, that "her mortal mind was not strong enough to hold it; she left it but a few minutes, and it slipped away." This phase of Christian science implies that in a case where the patient is too young to wrestle with a "belief," its mother, if possessed of sufficient will-power, can vicariously throw off the illusion which takes the form of croup, measles, scarlet fever, or any disease whatsoever. There are sects in "Christian science," and the sectaries are at bitter feud with each other. What sect Mrs. Dr. Hinckley belongs to is not stated in the local accounts of the affair, but it is apparent from the newspaper comments that public opinion in Quincy is pretty strongly in favor of sending somebody to jail. It is time that an example was made of this felonious humbug. The laws of most States are sufficient to secure sick babies against homicide at the hands of Christian science if they are properly enforced.

The renewal of gold exports has had no adverse effect upon trade or speculation, and there is no reason why it should have any. As the *Financial Chronicle* shows, the entire export of gold since January 1, 1889, has been only $17,000,000. In other words, it has been little more than our production of gold during the same period of time, the yearly production being about $34,000,000. The *Chronicle* notes also a practice growing up, in the negotiation of time loans, of inserting the word gold as the kind of currency receivable at maturity. This is a commendable practice, especially in view of the preparations making by Senator Stewart and others to bring the country to a silver basis. If any such project should be carried out by Congress, let those who are fond of silver have silver, and let those who prefer gold have gold. Nothing can be fairer than that. It costs nothing to make gold contracts, and every such contract made adds at least one interested party to the political force opposed to the destructive aims of the Nevada Senators.

A correspondent, writing to us on the subject of the importation of Mexican silver-lead ores, directs our attention to two rulings of the Treasury Department which are supposed to be in conflict with that of Secretary Sherman in 1880, which is now in force and which governs the assessment of duty on such ores. The rulings are cited as follows:

Ruling of Treasury Department by letter dated November 16, 1875:

Silver bullion is free, but silver-lead bullion, no matter how much silver it has in it, is taxed as *lead* bullion.

Ruling of same, July 5, 1888:

All copper in silver-copper ore shall be subject to duty.

The answer as to the second quoted ruling is, that the law provides in so many words that the amount of pure *copper* contained in any ore shall be dutiable at 2½ cents per pound. There is no such provision of law regarding the *lead* contained in any ore. As to the other ruling, we observe that it relates to bullion, which is a finished product, and not to ore, which is a raw material.

"Mr. P. Egan's nomination has been cabled, and we hope it will not be confirmed. Americans, English, and Chilians also look upon it with great disfavor." The above is an extract from a private letter dated Santiago, April 5. The writer's party preferences do not appear, and have no part in forming the sentiment we have quoted. He is one of the thousand American citizens residing in Chili, anxious only that this country should be respectably represented in the person of the Minister sent to the Government under the jurisdiction of which they are living. It has already been abundantly shown that the choice of Mr. Egan is altogether bad from the point of view of our domestic politics; our correspondent shows how bad it will be in its influence upon our commercial relations with Chili and upon the interest of many American residents in that country. Mr. Egan cannot hope to be known there in any other guise than as a creature of Mr. Blaine's; and he could have no worse credentials. To invite Chili to a conference in order to discuss ways of extending our commerce with her, and then to send her as a Minister a henchman of the American whom she justly regards as her worst enemy, and a fugitive from the country with which she stands in the closest relations, is little short of insulting. More than that, there are American claims pending against Chili, for damages caused in the Peruvian war, and the American Minister to Chili ought to be a man able to pick up the threads of the negotiation for a tribunal of arbitration to settle them. Minister Roberts had the matter well in hand before his recall. Who supposes that Patrick Egan is a proper person to take charge of an affair of such intricacy and delicacy? Who supposes, for that matter, that either President Harrison or Mr. Blaine thought he was, or cared whether he was or not?

In French newspaper-slang, "bouillon" means that portion of any day's issue of a paper that remains unsold. The French papers have the custom of taking back from the keepers of the kiosks the whole, or a part, of this surplus every day. This seems to have suggested to the kiosk-keepers a little trick by which to increase their revenue, and some of them have been in the habit of lending out copies of the various journals to cafés and wine-shops in their neighborhood, receiving them back at night, and returning them to the newspaper offices with the "bouillon" next morning. A few weeks ago the *Figaro* engaged a sheriff's officer to make a round of the wine-shops in a suspected quarter, calling for a "bock" and the newspapers in each place, and leaving a private mark on each copy of the *Figaro* that was given him. The next morning he went over the same ground with the "bouillon" gatherers, and discovered many marked copies of the paper in the "bouillon." The *Figaro* thought best not to proceed in a criminal suit against the fraudulent kiosk keepers, but sued them for damages before the tribunal of the Seine, which has just compelled five of them to pay from ten to thirty-five francs apiece.

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THE HUNDREDTH YEAR OF THE PRESIDENCY.

THE last number of the London *Economist*, now the most philosophic of English periodicals, has an article on the place of the American President in popular estimation, apropos of the extraordinary honor with which President Harrison was received in the late Centennial ceremonial. It maintains that the way in which the President has gained in strength and respect during the past hundred years is the most remarkable phenomenon in the history of modern democracy. Kings have been running down steadily in popular estimation during that period. Aristocracies are nowhere, and representative legislative assemblies, which, at the beginning of the century, seemed the hope of mankind, have distinctly fallen into a sort of contempt. During all this period, however, the *Economist* thinks, the President has been gaining in weight and authority, and was, in the celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the Constitution, not only the recipient of more than royal respect, but the most conspicuous and interesting figure of the occasion in the eyes of the multitude.

This is the view of an acute observer looking on from afar, but it only shows how many things escape such observers. Mr. Bryce described the President's actual position much more accurately when he said that

> "the difficulty of forming a just estimate of the President's power arises from the fact that it differs so much under ordinary and extraordinary circumstances. . . . In ordinary times the President may be compared to the senior or managing clerk in a large business establishment, whose chief function is to select his subordinates, the policy of the concern being in the hands of a board of directors. But when foreign affairs become critical, or when disasters within the Union require his intervention, . . . everything may depend on his judgment, his courage, and his hearty loyalty to the principles of the Constitution."

And Mr. Bryce touches with remarkable perspicacity on the cause of the imposing figure cut by the President on such occasions as that which called forth the *Economist's* remarks; that is, "the larger a community becomes, the less does it respect an assembly, the more it is attracted by an individual man." In other words, by being raised as much as he is above the mass, the President becomes in the popular eye the one really picturesque figure in the country. His house, his mode of life, his habits, the state he assumes, if any, all touch the popular imagination, which is gratified in the highest degree by seeing him play the leading part in a great historic function like that of the Centennial. The interest in his inaugural ceremonial is of much the same kind. Nobody supposes it to have much, if any, political significance, but it is, nevertheless, watched with intense eagerness, and its smallest details are carefully reported.

The point on which the *Economist's* view of the present position of the Presidential office is most defective, is the immense influence of the spoils system in depriving the office of the weight and authority intended for it by the Constitution. This has been so great as to make the honors paid to the President on ceremonial occasions even more deceptive as to his real power than those paid to the Queen of England. When Bishop Potter was pointing out, in St. Paul's Church, the difference between the attitude of Washington towards office-seekers and that of President Harrison, he had only the moral aspect of the matter in mind, but he was really touching on a political fact of great moment. The truth is, that the Presidential office, as defined by the Constitution, has been profoundly modified by the obligation imposed on the President by his party of treating nearly all the offices of the Government as virtually vacant as soon as he comes into power. It is this which, more than anything else, has diminished the authority of the President in his relations to the other branches of the Government, and must, as long as it lasts, continue to diminish it. By submitting to it, a succession of Presidents have, to all intents and purposes, surrendered illicitly a considerable portion of the power bestowed on them by the Constitution, and greatly impaired that separation between the legislative and executive functions which its framers intended should be a prominent and most important feature of the Government. In fact, a change has been effected in the position of the President which, if proposed to the people in the shape of a constitutional amendment any time within the last hundred years, would have been rejected with scorn, and which, in any constitutional convention, would be received with laughter, not only as a political novelty, but as a business absurdity. Not only has no administrative experiment like "the spoils system" ever been seriously tried, but it has never been seriously discussed in any deliberative body.

It is to be observed, too, that in all probability this degradation of the Presidency and transfer of a large portion of its authority to the Senate and House of Representatives, could never have been effected if the burden of the appointing power had been kept within natural limits. Had tenure during good behavior been the rule of the Government service as it is of all private service, and had vacancies been created only by death, or resignation, or dismissal for cause, there is hardly a doubt that the President could have successfully maintained his constitutional rights against the boldest and most persistent attempts at usurpation on the part of the Senate. He would have been quite competent to make the selections necessary for the proper conduct of the Government business, without calling in the assistance of the Legislature, if the selections had been no more numerous than they would have been under a private employer.

What has wrested from him the control of the Administration is the doctrine that every change of party vacates *de jure* all the offices, and that the victors at the elections are entitled to have them filled with their own nominees as soon as the physical labor of the operation can be performed. When this was conceded, the position of the President under the Constitution was greatly changed, simply because no one man can direct or control "a clean sweep." He has to delegate to others the conduct of the process, and confine himself to the humble rôle of countersigning their orders. One of the most striking illustrations of the uncertainties of political development is to be found in the fact that the man who first began this remarkable departure from the original design of the Constitution regarding the Presidency, should have been the most masterful and self-asserting President we have ever had, the last man knowingly to permit or connive at any diminution of the Presidential authority. President Harrison's weakness and insignificance to-day is, in fact, the natural and logical consequence of President Jackson's arrogance and insolence fifty years ago.

THE NEW PENSION POLICY.

"IN appointments to every grade and department," said Gen. Harrison in his letter of acceptance, "fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office." Perhaps the most flagrant breach of the engagement thus entered into by the present President, certainly the one which threatens most harm to the public interest, was the appointment of Tanner as Commissioner of Pensions.

The regular expenditures of the Pension Bureau now far exceed the total cost of the whole Federal Government before the war. In other words, the Commissioner superintends the disbursement of a much larger sum than all the heads of departments together prior to 1861. Moreover, in a peculiar sense the head of the Pension Bureau is the custodian of the national honor. The patriotism of the Union soldier is a source of pride to the whole country. Every right-minded man desires that the volunteer's reputation for self-sacrificing devotion shall never be tarnished. The Commissioner of Pensions wields more influence than any other officer of the Government in deciding whether the Union soldier shall go down to history as a patriot, or as a mercenary who apparently entered the army chiefly to see how much he could make out of it. For some years there has been a strong tendency on the part of many old soldiers to convert their supposed patriotism into a club for securing undeserved pensions. The Grand Army organization unhappily fell under the control of this set, and has been transformed largely from its original conception of an association of former comrades for mutual advantage into a money-making machine. Of course it soon drifted into politics, and for some time past has used its power as a means of demanding offices and "bulldozing" officials.

President Cleveland's veto of the Dependent Pension Bill—an act which extorted the commendation of even such Republican papers as the Philadelphia *Press*, the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, and the Chicago *Tribune*—temporarily arrested this dangerous and demoralizing tendency. His re-election would have given assurance that moderation would continue the rule for four years more. The election of Harrison aroused apprehensions of a change for the worse, but

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nobody supposed that it would begin to be so bad as it already is. For the most important, responsible, and delicate office of Commissioner Gen. Harrison picked out—no, that is not the proper expression; he allowed to be shoved upon him—a loud-mouthed Grand Army stump-speaker. Anybody who knows anything about Tanner would have laughed in derision at the suggestion that fitness to discharge the duties of the place ever dictated his choice. It was simply, solely, and avowedly a reward for party service demanded by the Grand Army machine.

When the Democrats came into control of the House of Representatives fifteen years ago, an amusing Texas politician named Fitzhugh, who was chosen doorkeeper, leaped into fame by writing a letter in which he complacently described himself as "a biger man than old Grant." Tanner considers himself not only a bigger man than old Harrison, but more powerful than the legislative department of the Government as well. No sooner was he established in office than he began overruling any adverse decision which had been made, and allowing any fellow a pension who would take the trouble to ask it. Being invited to attend the recent Scotch-Irish Convention at Columbia, Tenn., he prepared with care a speech announcing "my policy," which he took pains to have sent all over the country by the Associated Press. In the course of this speech he said that there are 33,871 men upon the pension roll who receive not over $3.75 per month, and continued: "For twenty years I have been able to only plead, but now I am thankful that at these finger-tips there rests some power, and as that power is mine, I broadly say that I propose, just as soon as possible, to call in every one of the certificates of pension the figures of which I have just named, and reissue them on the basis of the truth, that no man ought to be down on the pension roll of the United States for less than the miserable pittance of one dollar per week, though I may wring from the hearts of some the prayer, 'God help the surplus!' This, and some other things too numerous to go in detail about, I propose to do, if my life be spared and my official existence be not cut short."

Of course, every intelligent man knows that Tanner really has no such power as he here egotistically claims to possess; but he can go ahead, and then ask his critics Tweed's question, "What are you going to do about it?" He has the Grand Army machine behind him, and he can threaten its displeasure upon any politician who ventures a protest. Tanner represents the "soldier vote" which is so much talked about, and he is ready to "use it for all it is worth."

We note, however, signs that there are Republican newspapers which recognize that there are worse things to be dreaded than the hostility of the Grand Army machine; that there is a taxpayer vote which counts for more than the "soldier vote" when it is once aroused. The pension expenditures of the current fiscal year will exceed the appropriation of $88,400,000, and it is already estimated that the bills for the next fiscal year will reach $95,000,000. This is a greater amount than the cost of the entire military establishment of Germany, under which the people of that nation groan so loudly. But if Tanner can have his way, the pension expenditures will soon be nearer $200,000,000 a year than $100,000,000. In fact, there is no telling where he would be content to stop.

Can the Republican party stand such a riot of pension extravagance? This is a question which Republican papers are beginning to ask, only to answer in the negative. "Pension-Commissioner Tanner," says the Philadelphia *Press*, "has a mania on the subject of pensions, which was the chief objection raised to his appointment. He would apparently like to pension everybody and everything. But he should realize where the pension money comes from, and also that it is no satisfaction to a deserving veteran to know that undeserving ones are on the rolls. While the people generally believe in liberal treatment of the veterans, they want the really deserving ones to get the money. The annual expenditures for this purpose are now rapidly climbing up to $100,000,000, and it is time to go slow." In the same line are the comments of the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, which says:

> "It is evident, in the Commissioner's judgment, any man who donned the uniform of a soldier in the war of the rebellion is entitled to a pension, whether the wearer saw a battle or received a wound; and so far does his sympathy with soldiers go that it has outrun the Union veterans and includes the Confederates as well. If there is anything like a plausible reason why a man should have a pension, Commissioner Tanner seems to have made up his mind that the reason shall be utilized to the benefit of the applicant. In his judgment, it is probably better that a thousand undeserving men should have pensions than that one deserving man should fail to get his.
>
> "It may be doubted very much whether the Union veterans who were most gratified at Commissioner Tanner's appointment will be altogether pleased at his extreme zeal in endeavoring to enlarge the pension roll. It is not an honor to them, or to those of them who are drawing pensions as rewards for their valor in the actual service of the Government, to find themselves classified with men who cook up 'claims' for services which, if not bogus, need to be covered over with a good deal of specious reasoning in order to obtain a standing under the law. In encouraging this order of claimants, Commissioner Tanner not only destroys the value of the pension list as a roll of honor in the eyes of the Grand Army of the Republic, and, indeed, of all citizens, but he fosters, no matter how good his intentions may be, the arts and tricks of the tribe of pension shysters who are always ready to corrupt and demoralize this branch of the public service. They need to have the lines tightened upon them and not loosened."

Here appears the irreparable mischief which Gen. Harrison has inflicted by his refusal to keep the solemn pledges upon which he sought and obtained the Presidency. Republican organs are to-day forced to cry out in indignation against the outrageous course of the Pension Commissioner, simply because the President did not make "fitness the essential and discriminating test" in filling the office, as he said he would, but did make "party service," as he expressly engaged that he would not.

THE BRUTALITY OF CIVILIZATION.

THE disgraceful scenes which have accompanied the opening of that part of the Indian Territory known as Oklahoma to white settlers are putting no check to this legalized trespassing on the lands of the Indians; and a committee of the United States Senate is about to begin negotiations with the Cherokees for the part of their possessions in the Indian Territory known as the "Cherokee strip." There is no doubt that the proposition to take this land from its owners comes entirely from the white men, and is with practical unanimity opposed by the Cherokees. But there are indications that there is a determination to make short work of this opposition, and even to treat with scorn those provisions of the Cherokee Constitution under which alone the voice of that people in the matter can be legally obtained. A United States Senator is quoted as saying that unless these Indians do what, under their laws, they cannot do—that is, call a council at once to consider the matter—Congress will pass a law opening their lands to settlement without giving them any voice on the subject; and a leading California journal has declared that the Government cannot evict the settlers who have entered these lands in violation of the most solemn agreements, and that there is "practical justice" in what it is not ashamed to call "this crowding-out game."

If some critic of our Government wanted to bring the most direct proof of the perfidy of the people of the United States towards the original owners of our soil, he would cite our dealings with these Cherokees. When Oglethorpe came over from England in 1733 with his paupers to found a colony, he landed in the Cherokees' country. He found them ready to welcome him, and eager not only to learn from him the arts of civilization, but to be instructed in Christianity. He encountered implacable enemies in the white Spaniards and Frenchmen, but only allies and defenders in the Indians, whom no bribes could win away from him. But the trustees of the colony in time abandoned the enterprise, and a royal government was set up. Then came bad faith with the Indians and resultant wars, and out of these came, in 1763, the inevitable treaty. By this they ceded a large tract of their lands to the whites. The Cherokees remained loyal to the British during the Revolutionary war and were great sufferers by it. White men steadily encroached on their possessions, and when they came to deal with the Government of the United States, one of their first requests was, as it will be now, that the trespassers should be removed. The Government professed its inability to do this, and another agreement was made in 1785, by which the Indians accepted pay for their lost territory. Four years later the Secretary of War reported to the President that "it has been proved that the said treaty has been entirely disregarded by the white people." Again the treaty swindle was made use of, and a new agreement, in 1791, was made, under which the Cherokees were to receive $1,000 a year for the lands of which they had been robbed, and "new boundaries were established." This treaty "solemnly guarantees to the Cherokee Nation all their lands not hereby ceded."

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But the boomers of those days continued their encroachments without any cessation. Another treaty was made in 1794, and in 1801 the President sent a commission on an errand exactly like that of the present Senate Committee, "to obtain the consent of the Cherokees" to still newer boundaries. They refused consent, but the pressure on them continued, and in 1805 they made another cession of lands, in 1816 two more cessions, which took away all their possessions in South Carolina, and in 1817 still another; this time the Government solemnly covenanting to give to each head of a family east of the Mississippi 640 acres, "with a reversion in fee simple to their children." These Indians whom the Government was thus steadily robbing, were even then not savages. So long ago as when Oglethorpe made their acquaintance they had said: "We would not be made Christians as the Spaniards make Christians; we would be taught before we are baptized." They manufactured cotton cloth in 1800, and in 1820 they had schools, a national form of government, and farms under cultivation, and almost every family used the card and spinning-wheel.

But of what avail was a treaty with Indians when they occupied lands that white men coveted? In 1829 the beginning of the end was reached. In that year Georgia passed a so-called law annulling all laws and ordinances passed by the Cherokees, and providing that no Cherokee or Creek should be a competent witness in any court when a white man was a party to the suit. Then the State demanded that the Federal Government should extinguish all the Indian titles to lands within her boundaries. The history of the dispossession of the Cherokees has never been fully written, and it is to be hoped, for the sake of the white men, that it never will be. The bad men among them were bribed; their lands were put up at lottery by the whites; Cherokees were hanged by the verdict of white juries, and so greatly were they persecuted that, beautiful as was their country and strong as was their love of it, they yielded at last, and in 1835, after persistent opposition, they took the final step, and ceded to the Government all their lands east of the Mississippi. What they gave up is thus described in a report made to the War Department in 1825:

> "The plains furnish immense pasturage, and numberless herds of cattle are dispersed over them; horses are plenty; numerous flocks of sheep, goats, and swine cover the valleys and hills. The climate is delicious and healthy. In the plains and valleys the soil is generally rich, producing Indian corn, cotton, tobacco, wheat, oats, indigo, and sweet and Irish potatoes. Apple and peach orchards are quite common, and gardens are cultivated. There are many public roads and houses of entertainment kept by natives. Numerous and flourishing villages are seen in every section of the country. Cotton and woollen cloths are manufactured. Different branches in mechanics are pursued."

Is it any wonder that this people clung to their homes until an army was sent to drive them out? "The full moon of May is already on the wane," said Gen. Scott in his warning proclamation to them, "and before another shall have passed away every Cherokee, man, woman, and child, in those States (North Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Alabama) must be in motion to join their brethren in the West." There was even haggling by Gen. Scott over the Indians' estimate of the cost of their journey; he thought that sixteen cents a day for rations was too high. We will not attempt to picture this journey of young and old half-way across the continent.

It is the last refuge of these Indians that Congress once more proposes to cut down. Some of this land they have already been coerced into parting with. Is it any wonder that they protest against giving up any more? These Indians, it must be remembered, are not the strolling bands found on the Sioux reservation, dependent on Government rations for food (now that their game is killed off), and still retaining their savage customs. They are a civilized nation, with a carefully devised form of government, living in neat houses (see a recent report of the Interior Department), owning sewing machines and pianos, raising their own wool and cotton, maintaining schools at a cost of some $75,000 a year, with stores, mills, and smith-shops, a printed constitution and laws, and a weekly newspaper.

It is a sad chapter in our history, this story of the Cherokees, and there does not seem to be vitality enough in public sentiment on the subject of Indian wrongs to give any assurance that new chapters will not have to be written, so long as white boomers covet the red man's land, and members of Congress see a way to strengthening themselves with their constituents by assisting in the theft.

ITALIAN EMIGRATION.

THE *Economista d'Italia* of April 17 gave what it called the "painful figures" of the emigration of Italians for the year 1888, as furnished by the Director-General of Statistics. The total is 195,211, as against 127,748 in 1887. This is exclusive of temporary emigration—the leaving the country for a few months, that is, in search of temporary work. The departures are mostly from the agricultural provinces of the South, though Venetia leads the list with 81,042 emigrants, compared with 26,239 in 1887. From some parts of the province there has been almost a complete exodus. About Treviso, for example, entire villages are depopulated, and large estates are left without a single laborer, recalling the worst days of Ireland's famine and emigration. And the *Economista* fears that it is but a question of months before Piedmont and Lombardy and Tuscany will follow the example of Venetia.

The Italian journal does not hesitate to ascribe this accelerated emigration in large part to the present fiscal policy of the nation. The system of protection and militarism hits the farmer hard both going and coming; all his supplies cost him more, and the market for his products is narrowed; at the same time his taxes are increased. It is an agricultural crisis under which Italy is struggling, and it is from great distress and hardships in the agricultural regions that the Italian farm laborer is fleeing. Such a forced emigration must have a very different effect upon the mother country, says the *Economista*, from that which comes from colonization or the voluntary leaving of their native land by men bent on business enterprises. Patriotic sentiment cannot long survive in those who remember their country chiefly as the scene of their misery. And the struggle with the productive power of foreign nations will not be any the easier for Italy after she has sent thousands of her sons to become a part of the efficiency of her competitors.

A decidedly brighter view of the matter, at least in one of its aspects, is taken by the London *Spectator*, in its issue of April 27. It discusses the question of Italian influence in the Argentine Republic, and predicts the ultimate if not speedy Italianization of that country. Of the total immigration into the Republic of the La Plata for the last thirty-three years, 65 per cent. is Italian. In 1885 the Italian Chamber of Commerce of Buenos Ayres estimated that there were in the country no less than 1,000,000 persons of Italian birth or parentage. As this would indicate, the Italian emigrants are highly prolific. They marry with the native Indians more frequently than other new-comers, and such unions have been very fruitful. Of a present estimated population of 3,500,000, it is very possible that Italian blood is to be found in nearly one-half. With these facts to go upon, the *Spectator* argues that a new and greater Italy may arise in South America, to restore the decaying glory of the Italian name.

This appears to us to be an optimistic if not actually absurd view to take. It overlooks too many of the elements of the situation. Mere numbers do not count for much in the countries of Spanish-America. If they did, then Mexico and Chili and Brazil would be known as nations of Indians. No governments better illustrate the inevitable way in which a superior race dominates over an inferior, and, though few in actual numbers, determines the character and destiny of the nation. The vast majority of Italian emigrants to the Argentine Republic are of the grade we see most of in this country, and have little more immediate effect upon the government than the Indians with whom they so readily affiliate.

Then as to the actual influence of the Italians in the Argentine Republic, it is of course a thing not to be settled by any one's opinion; but intelligent Argentines with whom we have talked rate it very low. And numbers of suggestive facts might be cited in opposition to the view of the *Spectator*. For example, there are published in Buenos Ayres nine Italian newspapers and periodicals, of all sorts; but there are 109 Spanish, the latter including all the scientific and technical journals and by far the most able of the financial and political papers. In this respect the Italians are but a little in advance of the English, Germans, and French, each of those nationalities being represented by four publications; in proportion to the national constituency the latter mean more than do the nine Italian. Take the question of banking influence. Against

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the twenty Spanish-American banks can be set but two Italian, while there are three English, two French, and one each for the Germans and Spaniards. It may be added that not a single important officer of the Argentine Republic is an Italian. Certainly the *Spectator's* great Italian power of the Plate River has not yet arrived.

Moreover, there is likely to be a falling off in the Italian emigration to the Argentine Republic. The leaders of that country have already taken measures to discourage and check the coming of Italians who are mere unskilled laborers. At the same time, they are making strenuous efforts and liberal offers to induce emigration from the north of Europe—from Sweden and Norway, from Belgium and Holland. These attempts may not succeed, though we notice that in the month of March over 2,000 Belgians landed at Buenos Ayres; but they indicate that the Government has its eye on emigration, and that it will not hesitate to adopt stringent laws to keep out those whom it may not desire. It is certainly a mistake for the *Spectator* to speak of "Spanish indolence" giving the more wide-awake Italians a golden opportunity in the Argentine Republic. That country does not lie in the tropics. Its inhabitants have the vigor and energy appropriate to a temperate zone. Its ruling spirits are men of great ability. Buenos Ayres has literary and educational interests and organizations of great and growing importance. The *Spectator* will much sooner see home rule in Ireland than Italian rule in the country of the Argentines.

A REVISED WESTMINSTER.

It is easy to assign an undue importance to the action of the Presbyterian General Assembly looking towards a possible revision of the Westminster Confession. The way chosen of disposing of the question is entirely indeterminate—in fact, makes revision possible only after several years. This, of course, is in accordance with the traditional caution of the Presbyterian polity, which is always content to maintain the ancient landmarks until compelled by the general sentiment of the denomination to change them. Possessed of absolute power to settle the whole matter itself, the Assembly prefers to remit it to the presbyteries—that is, the pastors and churches—after the manner of an *ad-referendum* government. By these lower and more widespread courts the question must now be debated; and even if they decide upon change, it will take several years to engraft it upon Presbyterian organic law.

One should bear in mind the peculiar constitution of the Presbyterian judicatories as bearing on the decision of such questions. They are often compared to the gradations of the civil courts, rising from lower to higher, appeals lying from the presbytery to the synod, and thence to the Assembly as the Supreme Court. The analogy is fair enough, though it overlooks the fact that the same judges may be found in all three bodies, reviewing, for example, in synod or Assembly, decisions which they themselves have helped to make in presbytery. It is quite out of the question, then, to have a fresh and impartial review by higher judicatories of a case arising in the lower.

It is this interlacing of courts and functions that usually makes it so difficult and prolonged a matter to effect a change of any importance in the Presbyterian system; the revision of the Book of Discipline, for instance, was finally effected five years ago only after having been before the churches for years. And it is probable, as we have said, that the Assembly merely determined to set in motion this cumbrous machinery to find out, in the first place, if a revision of the creed is desired, and then, perhaps, a year or two later, to appeal to the same circumlocution office to ask how to get the thing done. It is for this reason that the action may be taken to be far more momentous than it really is. Indeed, it is possible for the extremest conservatives to interpret the whole thing as only a bold challenge to dissatisfaction and restlessness. This is what they are evidently going to do, as the Princeton men make perfectly clear with their curious talk about standing by the old Westminster even if the Assembly should abandon it. The conservative position in the presbyteries undoubtedly will be that the Assembly desired to show the world, in the most conclusive way possible, that there is no dissatisfaction in the Church with the old creed. Let us put an end, they will say, to all these vague reports, and let it clearly be understood that we want no changes. And it would not be at all strange if they should carry the day. The liberals, on the other hand, see in the action of the Assembly all they could have hoped. They confidently expect that what they believe to be the reproach of their church will be taken away. They predict a great increase in the number of candidates for the Presbyterian ministry, especially among those choicer young men educated in the Eastern colleges, of whom so few are seeking that ministry. Above all, they hope for the abolition of the present ambiguous terms of subscription, which expose tender consciences to so much of moral peril.

Meanwhile, to an outsider the action of the Assembly cannot but have the greatest significance, albeit of a kind probably different from that perceived by the strictly ecclesiastical eye. It means that the Presbyterian Church is at last conscious of the theological *glissade* upon which it, in common with all others, has entered. But a few years ago the Confession of Faith was the very ark of the covenant, to touch which was impious. In the debates on the revision of the Presbyterian Discipline, only a half-dozen years since, it was a common argument of the opponents of change that the next thing to be heard of would be a revision of the Westminster. God forbid! was the general cry. But already it is at least propounded; it is at least acknowledged to be an open question whether, as was hinted by that child of the Covenant, brought up on the Westminster, Carlyle, "there may be elements in the infinite thought and scheme which the Westminster Assembly has not jotted down."

It cannot but be in the interest of light to have these old questions gone over, as they will be, in the Presbyterian churches of the land. A certain melancholy, however, comes with reflecting how vast an amount of energy will be expended on matters which are really so little connected with the most vital thought of the age. The conservatives are wholly right in one point—it will be perfectly futile, as they say, to hope to satisfy the objectors to the Westminster with any such slight repairs as may be effected. As long as the accredited instructors of Presbyterian seminaries go on dismissing, with ignorant scorn, the contributions to human knowledge made in this century which have revolutionized every department of investigation, as long as nine-tenths of the Presbyterian ministry have never even read the works of the man whose name will do most to make the nineteenth century distinguished to those who come after us, it is not reasonable to expect that even a revised Presbyterian creed will be able to satisfy those who have eaten of the new tree of knowledge. Horace Bushnell used to say that ministers in general preached about what their fathers, a hundred years before, had supposed, though mistakenly, that people were interested in; the subjects, even then, being a century belated. So a revised Presbyterian creed might possibly get onward from 1649 to 1749; there is no chance of its getting in sight of 1889.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Boston, May 22, 1889.

The annual meeting of the American Oriental Society took place in the Athenæum Building to-day, the Rev. Dr. Peabody in the chair. Dr. Isaac Hall of the New York Metropolitan Museum made a report for the Committee on Classification of Oriental Manuscripts. Dr. Gottheil and Dr. Hall have thus far examined more than four hundred. Among these are a great number of synagogue rolls; Samaritan, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Ethiopic, and Persian parchments, several Armenian, and a few rarer Chinese, Siamese, Burmese, and Assamese. It is hoped that the efforts of this committee will be an incentive to other scholars all over the country towards classifying and cataloguing all Oriental manuscripts which may come under their notice. The need of a systematically arranged catalogue of such curiosities has long been felt by scholars.

Prof. Moore of Andover read a paper on certain Arabic MSS. in the library of the University of the City of New York. These are chiefly grammatical works collected in Syria by Mr. Jonas King in 1823. The collection was bought by Mr. Chester of New York, and presented by him to the University. Prof. Moore touched upon three of the most important, viz., (1) a Commentary of Shihab Ed-dîn, the date of which is estimated at 894 A. D. (2.) A fine copy of a Commentary on the 'Alfiye,' the largest MS. in the collection, the approximate date of which is 1135-1177 A. D. Prof. Moore in his paper proved that its authorship must be attributed to Ashmûni. (3.) A Hebrew MS. of 180 leaves, now in Andover. This came originally from the Malabar coast, and was presented by Mr. Bardwell to the Andover Library. Nordheimer describes it as a book of hymns and songs—chiefly for weddings, bridal

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processions, etc. Most of the poets mentioned in this work are generally unknown.

Dr. Isaac Hall read an essay concerning a Syriac dissertation on Apostolic writings.

An article by C. Johnson of Johns Hopkins University, on "Chaldean Astronomy and Astrology," was read by Dr. Cyrus Adler. The writer states that it was the general opinion of antiquity that the Chaldeans were the originators of astronomy. He endeavors to prove this, contrary to Mr. Sayce's statement in favor of the Egyptians. He believes that the origin of astronomy and astrology was pre-Semitic, dating back to the Shamanism of the proto-Babylonians. The belief that the celestial bodies were the dwelling-places of the gods gave rise to the idea of observing the stars in order to know the will of the divine beings. This brought about their complicated system of astrology, and from this again came the knowledge of the heavenly bodies which resulted in our modern science of astronomy. In a work of seventy-two tablets on astronomy, supposed to be compiled in the reign of Sargon, 3000 B. C., is a digest of all the events expected to follow every combination of the stars. The author then explains the Calendar, deciding in favor of the theory that the standard was lunar rather than solar. He touches on the origin of the week of seven days, which he derives from the phases of the moon.

Dr. Cyrus Adler read also an article on the Progress of Oriental Science in America in 1888—a bibliography of Oriental studies in this country, comprising an author and subject-catalogue.

The Rev. Mr. Dickerman read a résumé of a work by William Petrie, giving an account of a systematic exploration around Hawara in Egypt. Mr. Petrie refutes the doctrine of Maspero and Sayce that Lake Moeris, mentioned by Herodotus, never existed. The area of the lake, he says, was considerably reduced by the draining operations of various monarchs, more especially the Ptolemies, and therefore does not exist at the present day. He furthermore describes the labyrinth and pyramid of Hawara, which were destroyed by quarrying for the material that composed them (limestone and granite). Mr. Petrie has, however, discovered its exact situation. Among his researches he also discovered the sarcophagus of Amen-em-hat III. and that of his daughter Tanefer-u. On the south side were the boxes which held the funeral vases. Besides these he found an alabaster table for offerings and a set of alabaster bowls. One of the most curious finds was a false or dummy mummy of an infant, whose body the embalmers had not taken the trouble to prepare.

Mr. J. D. Prince gave a brief account of the proceedings during the past year of the Babylonian Expedition sent out from the University of Pennsylvania. This was supplemented by a few remarks from Dr. William Hayes Ward concerning the movements of the party since the departure of Mr. Prince in February.

During the afternoon session Dr. F. C. H. Wendell read "Prolegomena to an Historical Account of the Egyptian Religion." In debating the character of the generally accepted creed, the author raises the question whether the religion was monotheistic. In one sect there was, he says, a strong tendency to monolateralism, or blending various deities into one. This ultimately resulted in what might be called a monotheism. The term pantheism, however, is not more appropriate. The Egyptian religion was in reality an animism, or more exactly an agglutinated polytheism. Egypt itself is an agglomerated product. Every province or country had its official deity, all duly recognized by the national or union religion as supreme in their local sway. Lower and Upper Egypt had later two distinct general cults, besides the local ones.

Prof. Lyon read a paper describing a lapis-lazuli disk, bearing a cuneiform inscription of eight lines.

Dr. Wm. Hayes Ward read an article on Babylonian cylinders. Seal cylinders, he says, had their origin in Southern Babylonia, and were adopted later by Persia and the adjacent countries. The cylinders finally gave place to conical and ring-shaped seals. Their form was taken from the joint of a reed. The later seals were simple cylinders of uniform diameter. The earlier ones were of hard serpentine. Seals were not turned on a wheel, but were formed by rubbing them up and down in a groove supplied with emery powder. All seal cylinders are bored first from one end and then from the other. No genuine cylinder is perforated from one end only. The later ones have smaller holes than the ancient ones. The old Babylonian cylinders are among the largest and thickest. In sealing, the entire cylinder was seldom rolled over upon the tablet, but only one side. In later Babylonian times the cylinder came to have a value as a talisman, owing probably to the religious devices engraved upon it. The most ancient of all represent the wild buffalo rather than the wild bull, probably because the buffalo was domesticated at a very early period.

The other papers were, "Traces of Christian Ideas in the Myths and Customs of the Civilized Races of America," by the Rev. S. D. Peet; "The Inscriptions at Lystra in Honor of the Emperor Augustus," by F. D. Brewer; "Inscriptions from Yorpin," supposed to be the site of the ancient Aralissus, copied from slabs in the Armenian Church by the Rev. Dr. George H. White in 1863, by F. D. Brewer; "Ethiopic Psalter," by Dr. Jastrow; "Avesta Grammatical Jottings," by A. V. W. Jackson. The meeting then adjourned until October.

A FEW ANCIENT SITES.—II.

NIFFER MOUNDS, TURKEY, March 16.

IN striking contrast with the massive ruins of stone described in my former letter is Jabriyeh, a day's journey beyond Kan Kalessi, a city of mud brick, in the plain, on the very bank of the Euphrates. This place is incorrectly given by Kiepert, in his large map of the Ottoman Empire, as on the north bank of the Euphrates. It is on the south bank, about 34° 20′ north latitude, and 41° 12′ east longitude, at the mouth of Wadi Jaber, at about the position assigned to El Karabile. (I may add that I was unable to find El Karabile at all; and El Kadim, the next station, given by Kiepert, should be El Kaim, and its position almost that he assigns to El Karabile.) This is not an unfair specimen of the inaccuracy of the best maps of Turkey. Anything like a survey is strictly forbidden, although, by a strange anomaly, the law of excavations requires a topographical plan as a preliminary condition of an application to excavate. At the eastern end of the southern wall of Jabriyeh the unburnt bricks are visible *in situ*, but the rest of the wall is merely a long narrow line of débris some 1,200 paces in length. The western wall, at right angles with this, and about 900 paces long, ends in a large mound or series of mounds, on the edge of what was once the river bed. The eastern wall also started in the same rectangular manner, but, after a couple of hundred paces, meeting the river bed, turned gradually about until it finally ended in the same large mounds in the northwest. Within this southern wall are two other lines of mounds, also bearing a perplexing resemblance to walls. The interior space and the surfaces of the mounds are thickly strewn with fragments of glazed and unglazed pottery of a greenish color, and pieces of burnt brick, many of which were also green, blocks of gypsum and basalt, and what I may call intentional pebbles (or those which were used for some purpose) of all sorts, including jasper and agate, both of which abound in this region. On the surface of the large mounds were graves, and some late constructions of brick and stone. It is said in the neighborhood that coins, presumably Sassanian or Kufic, are often found here.

Jabriyeh was visited by Dr. Ward on his return journey in the spring of 1885, and pronounced by him an ancient Babylonian ruin, on the ground of its mud-brick walls. It is only two days' journey above Anah, at which point Babylonia, with its climate, its customs, and its people, may be said to commence, and Syria end. It is by no means impossible that Dr. Ward is correct in his conclusions, and I was at first inclined to accept them without question; but later experience with mud-brick walls and similar remains in Babylonia proper have shaken my belief, and even induced me to think that, although Babylonian in the sense of reflecting the building customs of that region, it belongs in time to a much later period than that implied by the word—namely, to the Sassanian, or even to the Arabic period.

Another place visited by the Wolfe Expedition was Anbar, which Dr. Ward identified with "the Agade, or Sippara of Anunit, the Accad of Genesis x, 10, the Persabora of classical geographers, and the Anbar of Arabic historians." This place is given by Kiepert, in his *Ruinenfelder*, under the name Tel Aker, a name which applies in reality only to the highest southeastern point of the mounds. These mounds are of great extent, covering more ground than those of Babylon itself, and equalling if not exceeding in surface the immense mounds of Niffer. Anbar lies on the east bank of the Euphrates, just south of the point of junction of the Saklawiyeh Canal, about latitude 33° 20′ north, and east longitude 44° 3′. It is near the late ruin and small modern village of Kala'at Feluja, at which point a bridge of boats was built across the Euphrates some three years since, thus deflecting the caravan route from its former course via Saklawiyeh. Dr. Ward discovered the place by accident, as the result of his visit to Sufeira, to the north of the canal. He had but an hour or so at his disposal in which to examine it. We were more fortunate in being able to devote a day to the examination, but even that proved totally inadequate for the purpose, so large were the ruins. We had a peculiar interest in this examination because, in consequence of the report of the Wolfe Expedition, we had applied for permission to excavate at Anbar—an application which was refused for reasons unknown. We all failed to notice the depression dividing the city "into two parts," of which Dr. Ward writes, and which figured also in his proposed identification. Dr. Ward thought that he could "trace the lines of the old palaces or temples" in the depressions and hollows of the mound, which are indeed remarkable; but our experience at Niffer has shown us that surface indications of this sort are of small value, especially where a site was inhabited to a comparatively late period. The remains on the surface are all late, and belong to the time of Arabic occupation.

There are everywhere visible singular evidences of what seems to have been a great con-

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flagration, in the shape of vitrified masses of brick and glass, and stones destroyed by heat. Fragments of glass were especially numerous, and one mound was veritably an iridescent green from the quantity upon it. The pottery was the same as that found upon the surface everywhere along the Euphrates and in Babylonia, the glazed fragments having a bluish or greenish color. The size of the mounds points to a long period of accumulation, and consequently to a considerable antiquity. This process of accumulation of mud-brick mounds can be readily observed on a small scale in any town or village of unburned brick or mud, like Deir or Anah or Hit, on the Euphrates, all of which (and especially the latter two) are ancient. A man's house is washed away by the rains, and turned gradually into a heap of mud, on which in time a new house will be erected, to undergo in its turn the same fate. The rapidity of growth, which would otherwise be enormous, is, of course, checked by the use of some of this old material over and over again.

The sites which I have mentioned are but a very few of the immense number which we have observed, beginning almost with the day on which we set foot in Asia. So, for example, from Hammam, ancient hot springs on the eastern edge of the great Antioch plain, near the point where Zenobia met with her first defeat at the hands of the Romans, I counted eighteen ruin mounds, not identified, to the best of my knowledge, nor noted on any map. The plain to the east of Aleppo is fairly dotted with similar *tels* yet awaiting investigation. Here, also, at two small villages, we found remains of stone structures, colonnades of marble and basalt, great basalt troughs, and in one place an ornamental door of basalt, with keyhole and bolt-holder complete. The ruins along the Euphrates, especially below Anah, are not so numerous. They are chiefly Arabic fortresses, some of them, like Rehaba, a day below Deir, comparatively well preserved and very picturesque. These probably stood on older foundations, for the most part unidentified. Opposite the mouth of the Khabour is a large plain on which are a number of mounds, and the whole plain is literally covered with pottery. The present condition of the Euphrates valley, especially above Deir, is one of almost hopeless desolation. The land is wonderfully fertile, with water easy to obtain, but the inhabitants are only a few handfuls of squalid Arabs of the most degraded type, and any cultivation is a sort of accident.

Between the Euphrates and the Tigris our matter of amazement was not so much the number of ruins, although these are not wanting, as the vast number of canal beds of all ages, apparently, excepting the present. A large number of these radiate from Akerkuf. The latter ruin consists of a few low mounds, on one of which is a solid mass of sun-dried bricks, rising like a tower to the height of about one hundred feet. Well known, only six or eight miles from Bagdad, a conspicuous landmark, visited by every one, Akerkuf has never been touched by the spade, and no one has any idea what ancient city lies buried here. An inscribed brick, found a number of years since, bears the name of Kurigalzu, showing that the place, whatever it was, existed at least 1,600 years B. C. This, and the fact that it was the centre of a great canal system, constitute the sum of our knowledge of Akerkuf.

Singularly enough, our first guide to Akerkuf misled us to an almost unknown and quite interesting Arabic ruin, called Senadiyeh. Here, amid pottery, bricks, and fragments of walls, we found standing part of a highly decorated building, which appeared to belong to the period when Bagdad flourished under the caliphs; but all about it were mounds and canals, many of them going back probably to the Babylonian period. The way in which one age here borrows from its predecessors was illustrated by the finding of beautiful blue tiles from Senadiyeh built into *ziarets*, and also into a Government building several miles away. Similarly, at Hillah we found the Government building made, at least in part, of stamped bricks of Nebuchadnezzar from Babylon.

At Bagdad M. Henri Pognon, the well-known Assyriologist, acting French Consul in M. de Sarzec's absence, took us to visit the ruins of ancient Bagdadu. The visible remains consist of a great terrace of brick on the western or Mesopotamian bank of the river, within the limits of the modern city. The bricks are laid in bitumen, and bear the stamp of Nebuchadnezzar. We had to reach them by boat, a large, round, wicker basket, smeared with bitumen, such as are depicted in the Assyrian bas-reliefs. On top of the remains of this ancient terrace or levee had been built at a later date another of inferior material and workmanship, and without bitumen—proof that Bagdad existed before 742 A. D., and that the caliphs merely rebuilt an ancient city.

It may not be amiss to add a few words about Niffer, where we are at present excavating, or Nufar, as the natives call it. It lies about in 32° 8′ north latitude, and 44° 10′ east longitude, in the country of the Affek, or Affej, Arabs, a powerful confederation, almost independent of Turkish rule. Kiepert locates it on a great marsh, but this has been somewhat reduced in size within the last five years by the partial change of course of the Euphrates. The water which once flowed in the river bed now pours into the Hindiyeh canal, leaving the river more than half empty, and almost ruining the country on both sides of it from Hillah southward, which was dependent on the water of the river for irrigation. The Government has finally been forced to take steps to prevent a total change of bed, by erecting a new dam to check the flow of water into the Hindiyeh. The mounds of Niffer are of immense extent, covering more ground than the ruins of Babylon. They are divided into two, or rather three, parts, by what Arab tradition declares to be the Shatt-en-Nil, the same great canal which one finds leaving the Euphrates at Babylon. How late the city was inhabited we cannot yet say, but probably until considerably after the commencement of the Christian era. It was certainly still flourishing in the times of the Persian kings, and under the name of Nipur it is known to Assyriologists as one of the oldest, most important, and most sacred cities of southern Babylonia. In the Talmud it is identified with the Calneh of Gen. x.

Our excavations were commenced early in February, and we hope to extend the season until the first of May. The weather is already intensely hot, reaching at times 102°, or even 105°, in our tents, in spite of high winds; and the flies and dust are almost intolerable. Nevertheless, we were delayed so long in Constantinople, and commenced work so late, that necessity compels us to hold on to the latest possible date, if we would have anything to show for this year's work, or even prepare the way properly for next season. JOHN P. PETERS.

THE EXPOSITION.

PARIS, May 16, 1889.

IT is impossible to speak or even think of anything at present but of our great Exhibition. I saw the Eiffel Tower grow slowly for years, and I must say that I did not look with pleasure on it. As long as it was unfinished, however, I had the consolation of thinking that it was a mere temporary structure, and that perhaps it would have the fate of the tower of Babel and remain incomplete: "pendent opera interrupta." I was wrong, and when, some time ago, the workmen, as is their habit with every new house in Paris, planted the tricolor flag on its top, I felt that the time had arrived, and that I must resign myself to make a visit to the iron monster. For many months, also, as I took my passage in one of our fast little steamers on the Seine, as I often do (and there is no more agreeable mode of locomotion in our city), I saw a sort of curious town rising on the left bank of the Seine, between the huge building of the Foreign Office and the Champ de Mars. I admired the skill of our Parisian workmen, who seem to do anything they like with a little wood and plaster, who understand all styles, who can build a sham mosque, with its minarets, as well as a Greek temple. From the river I saw a curious agglomeration of bazaars, of quaint edifices, of spires, of cycloramas, of arches; it seemed all unreal, and looked like the decoration of a theatre.

The great day came, and the Exhibition was opened by M. Carnot, our President. The day before, he had gone to Versailles to celebrate the anniversary of the opening of the States-General of 1789. Not unintentionally the two ceremonies were made to coincide—the Revolution, the Exhibition were to be like twin sisters. The Republic of 1889 wished to place on her credit account the marvels of French industry, the sum of all the progress accomplished in science since a hundred years. I was not among those who witnessed the festivities at Versailles and the day afterwards at the official inauguration of the Exhibition, which took place under the central dome of the buildings in the Champ de Mars. In the evening of that day Paris was illuminated, and for the first time the Eiffel Tower took on the appearance of a gigantic lighthouse. From a balcony on a house situated on the Boulevard Haussmann, I saw this extraordinary illumination. Every cupola in Paris, every church was marked with lines of fire—the Panthéon, the Invalides, the Opéra, the huge towers of the Trocadéro. The three platforms of the Eiffel Tower were marked against the sky, and from its top a light threw its rays, sometimes red, sometimes white or blue. From time to time, red Bengal fires illuminated the whole iron structure of the Tower, and then its colossal dimensions appeared to advantage, as it rose above the city. Electric light was projected in varying directions from gigantic lamps which were near the top of the Tower, and fantastic cones, like tails of comets, played over the horizon. The whole scene had something demoniac, and made one think of the end of the world. It recalled to me at times the fires of the Commune: there was the "grande ville" swelling in its pride, and building new palaces before it had reconstructed those which it had destroyed with its own hands in 1871.

The next day I drove to the Trocadéro and entered the Exhibition by the right bank of the river. The view of the Champ de Mars, when you look down from the Trocadéro hill, is truly stupendous. The wildest fancy could not throw together more things in the same space: blue cupolas, gilt cupolas, iron and glass roofs in endless succession, the bridge over the river, gilded boats gliding on like the Venetian Bucentaur, immense gardens, grown as if by magic on the bare ground of the Champ de Mars;

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pavilions hidden on the right and on the left, of all sizes, of all styles, of all colors; flags of all creation, and, in the midst of this confusion, the great mass of the Eiffel Tower rising to the sky, with its clean-cut network of iron, so transparent that at times it seems unreal, so hard that at other times it seems oppressive and threatening, an object without any other grace than the curve of its immense parabolic line, a geometrical grace; a thing of endless details where no detail particularly strikes you, where you can measure nothing in your mind by comparison, as you do before a Gothic cathedral, where statues and familiar ornaments are spread everywhere. I certainly had not, in the presence of this tower, 300 metres high, an impression of greatness equal to what I have experienced before the cathedrals of Strassburg and Cologne. I felt more bewildered than moved, and the bewilderment grew when, crossing the river over the bridge which has been enlarged and decorated for the occasion, I arrived at the very feet of the huge monster—four iron feet, immense, looking like the paws of a fantastic animal. When you enter the great square which is formed by them and go to its very centre, you see the inside of the Tower, and your eye can go nearly all along its axis of 300 metres, as the platform is but a large gallery and is open in the middle.

Leaving the Tower behind me, I went across the immense gardens, looking right and left on the long buildings called the Gallery of Fine Arts and the Gallery of the Liberal Arts. I admired the dome which marks the centre of each of these long galleries. I do not think that the ornamentation of metallic structures has ever been carried so far or has ever been so happy. Everywhere the great lines of the metallic structures are visible and clear, but the intermediate spaces have been adorned with terracotta, with porcelain, with enamelled bricks; the iron frames have been painted in light colors, and the general impression is very agreeable. The two domes are particularly fine: they are of a sort of turquoise blue, mixed with white, which gives them a very aerial appearance.

I do not like so much the central dome, placed in the transverse middle gallery, facing the Eiffel Tower. It has been covered with gold, and looks too gaudy and gorgeous, and bears an immense gilt statue of France, distributing laurels and crowns, which is entirely devoid of grace and beauty. Entering the galleries which extend behind this dome, I rushed, in a straight line, to the magnificent Machinery Hall, which is, with the Eiffel Tower, the characteristic feature of the Exhibition. It is the largest iron hall that has ever been built (much larger than the St. Pancras station in London). I will not here give its dimensions. I will only say that the impression which it makes is truly great. The means are suited to the end, which is the first rule of æsthetic beauty. The simplicity, the boldness of the great iron frames which, at equal distances, form the skeleton of this huge building, cannot be too much praised; and the light colors which have everywhere been employed give airiness to the gigantic hall. Light comes into it like a flood. It would be a pity ever to demolish such a magnificent structure. When the machinery is removed, it will look even more imposing. Perhaps it will be used as a drilling and parade ground: a whole regiment of cavalry could easily manœuvre in it. It is a pity that it is built right in front of the old École Militaire, which is one of the good buildings of the capital. It may be that the iron hall will be removed in parts to some other place, for the École Militaire, with its immense Champ de Mars, is an historical place and cannot be suppressed.

While I was wandering among the machinery, I saw a great crowd before Edison's exhibition. I approached and saw the famous phonograph—a little box, not bigger than a small musical box. A polite gentleman offered the ends of two India-rubber tubes to place in my ears. I did so, and immediately the noise of the engines of the great hall ceased to be perceptible, and I heard instead a march played by a brass band, as clearly as if it had been behind my back. "This march," said the gentleman to me, "was played four months ago in New York." The phonograph is one of the great successes of the exhibition. Everybody is amazed by it—those who do not understand it, and, I may add, also by those who do understand it. It is simply miraculous.

I returned towards the river, feeling everywhere as if the great Tower were over me, and when I approached it again I entered into a sort of a bower, and took refuge among some trees, when a little page ran after me. "Sir, he is going to begin." Who is going to begin? "Don't you know?" No. "Paulus." I allowed the page to take me into a sort of café concert. He had not deceived me; the curtain lifted, and on the stage I saw Paulus, the famous Paulus, the man who made half the popularity of General Boulanger, by singing "En revenant de la Revue," "Les Pioupious d'Auvergne," "C'est Boulange, lange, lange, c'est Boulange qu'il nous faut." There was the great Paulus, and there he is now every day, before an enthusiastic audience. He sings no more Boulangist songs—his General is in exile. He sang a song which ended with "Ils y viendront"—"they will come"—meaning the Emperors, Kings, and Princes who, so far, have refused to come; and he described the glories of the Exhibition. Undoubtedly Paulus thinks himself one of these glories. By a curious contrast, his little theatre (an incombustible steel theatre) lies almost at the feet of the big Tower. A foreigner may see here the extremes of civilization, and if anybody should feel intoxicated by the glories of modern science, I advise him to enter Paulus's theatre, to hear his vulgar and indecent songs, his coarse pleasantries; to look upon the admiring crowd which lies at his feet. There is a curious irony in the juxtaposition of the gigantic Tower and the tiny theatre, of Eiffel and of Paulus.

SMOLLETT IN SEARCH OF HEALTH.—II.

NICE, January 21, 1889.

IT was chiefly owing to his remarks on Art that Smollett excited the ire of contemporary English connoisseurs. He does really say, as Sterne accused him of doing, that "the Pantheon looks like a huge cock-pit open at the top"; but he discusses the building at length in a way which shows that he knew what he was about. He also finds fault with the Venus de Médicis, which at that time was greatly overpraised. But, far as he was from the opinion of his own time, he approaches very nearly the judgment of art critics of our day. It is not, however, an instance of this when, in speaking of the frescoes in the Campo Santo of Pisa, he says: "Though the manner is dry, the drawing incorrect, the design generally lame, and the coloring unnatural, yet there is merit in the expression; and the whole remains as a curious monument of the efforts made by this noble art immediately after her revival." He has, too, the strange idea that the celebrated fresco of the Triumph of Death represents the three stages of putrefaction which bodies undergo in nine days when buried in the Campo Santo. We are ordinarily told that this was filled with earth brought from the Holy Land; but Smollett imagines it "no other than common earth mixed with quicklime." All this shows how dangerous it is to be dogmatic in art criticism, when standards of taste are constantly changing. The opinions of many art critics of the last century seem strange in our eyes, while some which looked strange then seem natural enough now. Smollett at all events had the merit of being frank, and of expressing his real opinions, not judgments made up from books.

Among many miscellaneous remarks interspersed in the account of his journey, here is one about the Acton family, well known both in England and Italy:

"He that now commands the Emperor's navy, consisting of a few frigates, is an Englishman called Acton, who was heretofore captain of a ship in our East India Company's service. He has lately embraced the Catholic religion, and been created Admiral of Tuscany."

And here is an amusing remark, which shows an early acquaintance with the works of his contemporary Goldoni:

"For my part, I would rather be condemned for life to the galleys than exercise the office of a cicisbeo, exposed to the intolerable caprices and dangerous resentment of an Italian virago. I pretend not to judge of the national character from my own observation; but if the portraits drawn by Goldoni in his comedies are taken from nature, I would not hesitate to pronounce the Italian women the most haughty, insolent, capricious, and revengeful females on the face of the earth. Indeed, their resentments are so cruelly implacable, and contain such a mixture of perfidy, that, in my opinion, they are very unfit subjects for comedy, whose province it is rather to ridicule folly than to stigmatize such atrocious vice."

Although Smollett's opinions of Italian ladies are particularly British, his criticisms on his own countrymen are no less severe:

"The English are, more than any other foreigners, exposed to this imposition. They are supposed to have more money to throw away; and therefore a greater number of snares are laid for them. This opinion of their superior wealth they take a pride in confirming by launching out in all manner of unnecessary expense; but, what is still more dangerous, the moment they set foot in Italy they are seized with the ambition of becoming connoisseurs in painting, music, statuary, and architecture, and the adventurers of this country do not fail to flatter this weakness for their own advantage. I have seen in different parts of Italy a number of raw boys, whom Britain seemed to have poured forth on purpose to bring her national character into contempt: ignorant, petulant, rash and profligate; without any knowledge or experience of their own, without any director to improve their understanding or superintend their conduct. One engages in play with an infamous gamester, and is stripped perhaps in the very first partie; another is pillaged by an antiquated cantatrice; a third is bubbled by a knavish antiquarian; and a fourth is laid under contribution by a dealer in pictures. Some turn fiddlers and pretend to compose; but all of them talk familiarly of the arts, and return finished connoisseurs and coxcombs to their own country. The most remarkable phenomenon of this kind which I have seen is a boy of seventy-two, now actually travelling through Italy, for improvement, under the auspices of another boy of twenty-two. When you arrive at Rome you receive cards from all your country-folks in that city; they expect to have the visit returned next day, when they give orders not to be at home, and you never speak to one another in the sequel. This is a refinement in hospitality and politeness which the English have invented by the strength of their own genius without any assistance from France, Italy, or Lapland. No Englishman above the degree of a painter or cicerone frequents any coffee-house at Rome; and as there are no public diversions except at Carnival-time, the only chance you have of seeing your

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compatriots is either in visiting the curiosities or at a conversazione. The Italians are very scrupulous in admitting foreigners, except those who are introduced as people of quality; but if there happens to be any English lady of fashion at Rome, she generally keeps an assembly to which the British subjects resort."

This is very true of the last century, as witness all the letters and diaries of travellers, and is partly true of Rome nowadays, though a change is noticeable since that city has become the capital of Italy.

The greatest interest, after all, in these travels is in the account of Nice; and Smollett gives his observations on the weather from November, 1763, to the end of April, 1765, generally day by day, with the record of two thermometers, the direction of the wind, and weather *fair, cloudy, or "mizzling rain."* His second winter in Nice, 1765, was a remarkably damp one, and rainy weather prevailed from the middle of November to the 15th of March. In four months there were fifty-six days of rain.

"Notwithstanding these great rains, such as were never known before at Nice in the memory of man, the intermediate days of fair weather were delightful, and the ground seemed perfectly dry. The air itself was perfectly free from moisture. Though I lived upon a ground floor, surrounded on three sides by a garden, I could not perceive the least damp, either on the floors or the furniture; neither was I much incommoded by the asthma which used always to harass me most in wet weather. In a word, I passed the winter here much more comfortably than I expected. . . . In the spring, in spite of the constant sunshine, the air is cold, and the east wind sweeping over the Alps and Apennines, covered with snow, continues surprisingly sharp and penetrating. Even the people of the country, who enjoy good health, are afraid of exposing themselves to the air at this season, the intemperature of which may last till the middle of May, when all the snow on the mountains will probably be melted. Then the air will become mild and balmy, till, in the progress of the summer, it grows disagreeably hot, and the strong evaporation from the sea makes it so saline as to be unhealthy for those who have a scorbutical habit. When the sea breeze is high, this evaporation is so great as to cover the surface of the body with a kind of volatile brine, as I plainly perceived last summer. I am more and more convinced that this climate is unfavorable to the scurvy. Were I obliged to pass my life in it, I would endeavor to find a country retreat among the mountains, at some distance from the sea, where I might enjoy a cool air, free from this impregnation, unmolested by those flies, gnats, and other vermin which render the lower parts almost uninhabitable. . . . An agreeable summer retreat may be found on the other side of the Var, at or near the town of Grasse, which is pleasantly situated on the ascent of a hill in Provence, about seven English miles from Nice. This place is famous for its pomatum, gloves, wash-balls, perfumes, and toilette-boxes lined with bergamot. I am told it affords good lodging and is well supplied with provisions."

Smollett, who had lived in the West Indies, and his wife, who was a native of Jamaica, appreciated vegetables more than most Englishmen. One might think that they occasionally had certain articles sent out from America; for in 'Humphrey Clinker,' in a passage which really describes his own house, he speaks of a man so ignorant of grain "that our entertainer, in the face of the whole company, made him own that a plate of *hominy* was the best rice pudding he had ever eat." One can hardly think that hominy was then a common food in England. In his 'Travels' he catalogues with pleasure the peas, asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and more common vegetables; mushrooms, champignons, and truffles, and even the white truffles of Piedmont, "counted the most delicious in the world."

"There is also a kind of small courge, or gourd, of which the people of the country make a very savory ragout, with the help of cheese, eggs, and fresh anchovies. Another is made of the *badenjean*, which the Spaniards call *berengina*. It is much eaten in Spain and the Levant, as well as by the Moors in Barbary. It is about the size and shape of a hen's egg, enclosed in a cup like an acorn; when ripe, of a faint purple color. It grows on a stalk about a foot high, with long spines or prickles. The people have very different ways of slicing and dressing it, by broiling, boiling, and stewing, with other ingredients, but it is at best an insipid dish."

This is of course the *aubergine*, or egg-plant. Smollett seemed very fond of maize, for he mentions it several times, and once says: "This country produces a good deal of Meliga or Turkish wheat, which is what we call Indian corn: the meal of this grain goes by the name of *polenta*, and makes excellent hasty pudding, being very nourishing and counted an admirable pectoral."

The remarks about fruit and fish, birds and insects, many of which are interesting, show Smollett's powers of observation and his love of natural history. He even speaks of "a mosquito net," showing that these virulent pests have not been recently introduced into Europe by American travellers on the ocean steamers.

Mention of *terrapin* shows that Smollett understood the word in its true meaning:

"You know all sea-birds are allowed by the Church of Rome to be eaten on meagre-days as a kind of fish, and the monks especially do not fail to make use of this permission. Sea-turtle or tortoises are often found at sea by the mariners in these latitudes, but they are not the green sort so much in request among the aldermen of London. All the Mediterranean turtle are of the kind called loggerhead, which in the West Indies are eaten by none but hungry seamen, negroes, and the lowest class of people. One of these, weighing about two hundred pounds, was lately brought on shore by the fishermen of Nice, who found it floating asleep on the surface of the sea. The whole town was alarmed at sight of such a monster, the nature of which they could not comprehend. However, the monks, called *Minims*, of S. Francisco di Paolo, guided by a sure instinct, marked it as their prey, and surrounded it accordingly. The friars of other convents, not quite so hungry, crowding down to the beach, declared it should not be eaten, dropping some hints about the possibility of its being something preternatural and diabolical, and even proposed exorcisms and aspersions of holy water. The populace were divided according to their attachment to this or that convent, a mighty clamor arose, and the police—in order to remove the cause of their contention—ordered the tortoise to be recommitted to the waves; a sentence which the Franciscans saw executed, not without sighs and lamentations. The land-turtle or *terrapin* is much better known at Nice as being a native of this county; yet the best are brought from the Island of Sardinia. The soup or bouillon of this animal is always prescribed here as a great restorative to consumptive patients."

But, as there must be an end to all things, Smollett was obliged to return to England—with improved health, it is true, but with the conviction that he should never be better. During his three years' stay in his own country he lived for a while at Bath, which he had always liked, and paid his last visit to Scotland. Meanwhile he published his 'Travels,' wrote the continuation of his 'History' down to 1762, and, just before going to the south, his 'Adventures of an Atom,' in which he vented the last remains of filth, spite, and brutality that was still in his breast. He tried to get a position as consul, but in vain; Nice and Leghorn were already filled; and, finally, obliged to rely entirely upon himself, he left England in 1768 for Lucca and Pisa, where he remained for the winter, while he stayed for the summer in the village of Monte Nero, near Leghorn—fifty years afterwards inhabited by Byron. At Pisa he was visited by Sir Horace Mann, who did what he could for him; and among other work he wrote his charming novel of 'Humphrey Clinker,' in which he has evidently figured himself under the character of Matthew Bramble, whom Hannay calls "the most credible specimen of the *bourru bienfaisant* in literature." The charm of the book lies in its sweetness, which is the ripe product of Southern influence combined with ill health. Just before his death, in the autumn of 1771, Smollett wrote to his friend, the famous John Hunter: "With respect to myself I have nothing to say but that, if I can prevail upon my wife to execute my last will, you shall receive my poor carcase in a box after I am dead to be placed among your rarities. I am already so dry and emaciated that I may pass for an Egyptian mummy without any other preparation than some pitch and painted linen."

During the early part of January in that year there had been severe shocks of earthquake at Leghorn, which, as Sir Horace Mann writes in a letter from Pisa, dated January 14, 1771,

"have so terrified the inhabitants that few remain in the town. Thousands have gone into the country, many on board the ships in the mole; others sleep in boats on the canals, and many in their coaches upon the place. The most essential damage will probably arise from the hurt people will receive in their healths, for the buildings have suffered very little as yet; but as formerly, in London, a trooper prophesied the total ruin of the town, so an old woman has announced the fall of Leghorn on this day. I am now listening to hear the crash. . . . Hitherto, we at Pisa have not felt any earthquake, but we are in danger of being drowned by the incessant rains that have ruined the whole country."

In walking through the interesting old cemetery at Leghorn, filled with the graves of English and Americans who had been sent to Pisa, which was the great refuge for consumptives, and the only place in Tuscany where a Protestant could be properly buried (for, by the wisdom of the Medici founder, Leghorn was a free town for all religions, Christian, Jew, Mussulman, and Pagan), I came across the tombs of the too well-known Countess of Orford and Lady Cowper, and even of Francis Horner. I looked in vain for the grave of Sir Horace Mann, when I suddenly remembered that his body was taken to England for burial through the care of his friend. Sir Horace Walpole; and in the middle of the plot of ground I found the marble obelisk which marks the last resting-place of Tobias Smollett. E. S.

Correspondence.

A CINCINNATI APPOINTEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your notice of "The Administration and its Pledges" (p. 418) may invite or excuse a further word from one of a long-suffering community. Mr. Cleveland was fortunate in his appointments to the Cincinnati offices, except as to the Internal Revenue Collector. The other appointees were not politicians by profession, and have proved to be creditable. Bishop, who was made Collector of Revenue here, got the appointment at the dictation of the ring, and against the wishes of the better sort, and now the character of that appointment emerges into daylight and becomes a public scandal. It is not Mr. Cleveland's fault; he was unfortunate.

It was hoped and expected of Mr. Harrison that he would escape misfortune in every case, and to aid him, and (as some of us understood him) at his request, the best non-partisan

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points of public interest were laid before him. The last Mayor of the city was a man named Smith, who, in contempt of his oath of office, in contempt of his party pledges, and ignoring the remonstrances of the majority of the electors of this city, ignoring the mandate of the law all through his term, allowed the saloons as full license on Sundays as on any other day of the week, although the statute is explicit that they must be closed absolutely all that day. He was of the opinion that it was best for his advancement not to enforce the law, and yet, when the question of a renomination to the mayoralty came up, he found himself sadly in the minority. Thereupon he applied to the President for a place in which he could continue to subsist upon the public, and then it was that his record was laid before his Excellency, together with some other matters concerning his methods and character, and, after consideration, he is made Surveyor of Customs at this port, at the request of Mr. Sherman, Mr. Butterworth, and Mr. Halstead.

As soon as his appointment is made, his successor in office, also a Republican, issues an order which virtually says that he shall not interfere with the saloon men; nor will the police, unless reputable citizens will make specific complaint, issue warrants, and pledge themselves to do the prosecuting. We clothe the proper officers of the law with authority, furnish them with all necessary means, and pay their way, to enable and induce them to do their duty, and the head of them says openly to the citizens, if any man wants the law enforced in any particular case and will pay for it, the police will attend to it for him. That is the result of the endorsement given to Smith by the President after the whole matter had been fully brought before him, and after it had received his personal attention. Verily, as Mr. Lincoln said, the President is not President; the politician is President.—Yours very truly,

THEO. KEMPER.

CINCINNATI, May 25, 1889.

ETHICS OF BANKRUPTCY FOR MAGAZINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: More than one "wretched contributor" cries Amen to "C. H. W.'s" protest in the last *Nation*. The magazine "management" of which he complains has carried on its wrongdoings in the most high-handed and unblushing manner. Its latest editor was so thoroughly ashamed of that "management" that he sent a circular letter to subscribers and contributors, disavowing any complicity whatever with that lawless "management." Can the *Nation* not tell us if there is no way by which to force "Mr. Davis," or whoever that "management" is, to disgorge our MSS., for which we all sent stamps for return?

If magazine publishers are not responsible for MSS. intrusted to them, as some claim not to be, is the retention of $1 or $2 worth of postage stamps anything more or less than petty thieving? In this connection, many of us recall the *Manhattan*. When that magazine was forced to suspend issue, it honorably continued its editor's salary till every contributor was paid and *every manuscript returned*.

Yours truly,

A WRETCHED CONTRIBUTOR.

Notes.

JOSEPH THOMSON, the admirable African explorer, has written 'Travels in the Atlas and Southern Morocco,' which Longmans, Green & Co. will publish immediately. Six maps and sixty illustrations accompany the narrative.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, publish directly the 'Life and Work of Eli and Sybil Jones,' preachers and missionaries for half a century in the Society of Friends, by Rufus M. Jones. The work will contain two portraits.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will soon issue among their educational works De Garmo's 'Essentials of Method.' They have become the American publishers of Isaac Pitman's shorthand books.

White & Allen have arranged with William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, to publish in this country their new series of 'Tales from *Blackwood's Magazine*.'

Worthington Co. announce for immediate publication 'Two Daughters of One Race,' a new novel, by W. Heimburg, author of 'Gertrude's Marriage.'

Mary Howitt's autobiography, in two volumes, edited by her daughter Margaret, is about to appear in England, with the imprint of Isbister & Co.

The London *Times* for April 27 announces the preparation by Baron Nordenskjöld, the noted Arctic navigator, of an atlas containing some fifty facsimile reproductions of ancient maps, the result of several years' researches among the museums and libraries of Europe. The accompanying text describes the methods of cartography from the time of Ptolemy downwards, and analyzes in detail the contents of each map. The introduction will treat very fully of the editions and pseudo-editions of Ptolemy, of which the Baron's private collection "is probably unapproached." It is of interest to us to learn that while he has made many important discoveries of very early printed maps, "he has found that little can be added to the cartographical literature of America, which has been diligently and very completely worked out." This work will be published, probably in the spring, in Stockholm, in a Swedish and English edition. The English translation is by Mr. J. A. Ekelöf of the Royal Swedish Navy, revised by Clements R. Markham, the well-known geographer.

The publishing firm of Abenheim, in Berlin, whose list was remarkable for the number of American authors upon it (as, Emerson, Holmes, Parkman, Bayard Taylor, C. K. Adams, Bret Harte, etc.), has sold out to Hans Lüstenöder. On the same list are five of the works of the eminent German lexicographer, Daniel Sanders, which Herr Lüstenöder has a mind to popularize still further in accordance with their deserts. To this end he has made substantial reductions in the price of several of them, including, we believe, the great 'Ergänzungs-Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache,' of which the price is now, at all events, forty marks.

Another volume of the Transactions of the Oneida Historical Society (1887-1888), containing a full report of the New Hartford Centennial Celebration of last June, is now obtainable of Warren C. Rowley, Treasurer, No. 56 Genesee St., Utica, N. Y.

Prof. Genung of Amherst College has supplemented his 'Handbook of Rhetoric' by a valuable 'Handbook of Rhetorical Analysis' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), subtitled "Studies in Style and Invention," in which he has gathered passages from standard authors, in the main, as examples to be used in illustrating good writing. The volume is of proper size, and at the foot of the page are questions to be used by teachers. The study of literature by the young, he properly observes, is likely to lack precision and penetration; it operates to form taste very gradually. He aims, by close examination of comparatively few pages, to give, or rather to extract from, the student the reason why the practice of the great authors is good, and to show its coincidence with the rules laid down in rhetoric. The method has much to commend it, in connection with rhetoric, and will enliven that study and give it a more practical aspect. The selections are excellent, ranging from Bunyan to George William Curtis and Mr. Shorthouse, and afford sufficient variety of treatment. The matter, however, is sometimes over the heads of any but the higher classes, and is adapted rather to colleges than to any except high-grade high-schools.

A new and enlarged edition of Smith's 'Synonyms Discriminated,' edited by the Rev. H. Percy Smith (Henry Holt & Co.), is a very valuable addition to the reference library of students. In a space of some 750 closely printed, double-columned pages, in clear type, a real dictionary has been included, in which words of synonymous meaning are briefly and carefully discriminated, with quotations largely derived from that most excellent source, Richardson. The work has been admirably done, and is unrivalled, so far as our observation goes, in books of this class. The addition of the derivation of words as a clue to their exact meaning is a noticeable feature, and the index at the end is a gain. The work had been practically completed by the author before his death, and is published in effect from his hand. In our list acknowledgment of this book, by the way, the price was set down errroneously: it is $2.25.

The increasing interest in the study of the lower, or flowerless, plants is likely to give us a large number of text-books of various sorts during the next few years. Among the forerunners of this impending blessing comes 'A Handbook of Cryptogamic Botany,' by A. W. Bennett and George Murray (Longmans, Green & Co.). Mr. Bennett is widely known by his excellent translation of an edition of a famous handbook by Prof. Sachs, and by many and varied editorial labors, as well as by his studies in certain fields of botany. He has undertaken all of the present volume except the fungi and allied forms, and has done his embarrassing work in a cautious manner. But he has left untouched at least one very important subject, and has failed to give full credit to some prominent investigators in the department of cryptogamic botany. Mr. Murray's work, likewise, has been carefully performed, and, with the exception of not having preserved what seems to us a proper sense of relationships and proportions, he has been successful in a task of exceedingly great difficulty. The work will serve well as a safe makeshift while we are waiting for more extensive treatises on the same subject.

The Messrs. Putnam extend their pretty Knickerbocker Nuggets series with three essays of De Quincey's—"Murder Considered as One of the Fine Arts," "Three Memorable Murders" (a parallel to the recent Whitechapel performances), and "The Spanish Nun"—all bound in one pair of covers, and 'The Wit and Wisdom of Sydney Smith.'

Smith's fellow-canon of St. Paul's, Barham, is revived in his 'Ingoldsby Legends,' by Frederick Warne & Co. This substantial production has been got into a little more than 500 pages without any extra demand on the eyes, and in tasteful typographical dress and neat binding. A portrait of Barham, and comic designs by Cruikshank, Leech, and others embellish the volume, which can in all respects be recommended to the low-spirited.

A well-known suburb of Boston, consisting

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of many villages that mostly bear the name of Newton, is given, in the series of Handbooks of the Moses King Corporation, a volume very nearly as large as that devoted to Boston itself in the same series. It has been competently edited by Mr. M. F. Sweetser, and its illustrations, chiefly of private residences (though the charming scenery of the Newtons goes not wholly unsuggested), are very numerous. The local satisfaction with this handbook must be complete.

In the May number of the Harvard University Bulletin, two instances are recorded of past beneficiaries (a Greeley and a Greeley Clarke) returning to the college treasury the sums allowed them from the scholarship funds. This restitution has heretofore been rather uncommon, and most conspicuous in the Divinity School. The Corporation now think it useful to open an account analogous to the Conscience Fund of the U. S. Treasury, and to be called "Scholarship and Beneficiary money returned." No doubt this will stimulate the practice. In the same issue, the death of Chevreul is catalogued on account of his having received an honorary degree from Harvard, he being, too, the oldest person who ever did. Still, Judge Timothy Farrar came only just a year behind him; and two graduates, the Rev. John Sawyer of Dartmouth, and Nathan Birdseye of Yale, lived to be 103 years and five days, and 103 years, five months, and nine days, respectively, thus surpassing Chevreul (102 years, seven months, nine days).

The two recent notable occasions at Johns Hopkins are recalled by a pamphlet containing the new Constitution of Japan, with the speeches addressed to students of Political Science in the University on April 17, of which a limited edition is for sale at the Publication Agency, Baltimore; and by a reprint from the *Medical News* of Surgeon Billings's address at the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital on May 7.

A third pamphlet gives us the organization and an historical sketch of the Women's Anthropological Society of America, founded in Washington in 1885, and having now forty-five active members. Miss Alice Fletcher, one of the vice-presidents, is the name best known to science among the officers. One of the members, Miss Eliza R. Scidmore, is said to have in preparation a work on Corea. Another, Miss Sarah A. Scull, was for a year a student at the American School of Classical Studies in Athens. The proceedings of the Society have been varied and pertinent.

In the January number of the *Monatshefte zur Statistik des Deutschen Reichs*, is a table giving a synopsis of German emigration since 1871. The total for the period is 1,769,297. Of these emigrants the destination of 1,618,816 was the United States; 33,443 went to Brazil, 15,599 to other parts of South America, 16,341 to Australia, 4,780 to British North America, 4,047 to Africa, and 1,086 to Asia. There remain unaccounted for 74,685 emigrants sailing from French ports, though it is believed that nearly all of these went to the United States. The year of highest emigration was 1881, when 220,902 Germans left their fatherland. The lowest number of emigrants during any year of the period is found in 1877, viz., 22,898. Brazil received most of her Germans long ago, nearly 9,000 going to that empire in 1872-73. Latterly the tide has run much more strongly to other parts of South America, 1,723 going there in 1888, for example, while but 1,129 went to Brazil. The total emigration in 1886 amounted to 83,218, a lower figure than for seven years previous. In 1887, it was 104,659; in 1888, 98,568 (with returns from Havre wanting).

The late Count Tolstoi, who as Minister of the Interior held perhaps the most important place in the Russian Empire, had also some reputation as a man of letters. He was President of the Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, and of the literary section of it, and was the author of important works on the history of Russia and on education since the time of Catharine. He also wrote a book in French, a 'Histoire du Catholicisme en Russie,' in three volumes octavo.

The Hartford Theological Seminary has decided to admit women to all its regular courses of study. This is an extremely important decision. The prudent prophet would have thought himself safe in saying that this particular seminary would be the last, instead of the first, to grant such a concession. It seems to show that the unwise custom of barring out women, whose minds are weak, from all the possible sources for making them stronger, is more widely undermined than the prudent prophet had supposed.

—Many readers will first turn to the illustrated article in the June *Harper's* by Henry James, in which he describes the work and personalities of "Our Artists in Europe," and sketches the village of Broadway, which is their gathering-place. F. D. Millet, Abbey, Alfred Parsons, Boughton, Du Maurier, and Reinhart are the heroes of his friendly encomiums and of the engravings which show their portraits and some of the scenes of Broadway. Other much-illustrated articles are the account of the ever-interesting city of Montreal, with its picturesque and modern-commercial traits; the history of the "Negro on the Stage," from the competent pen of Laurence Hutton, and two poems, Praed's "Quince," and a sonnet of Wordsworth's, which are pictured in the customary way. The second article upon "Social Life in Russia," by Vicomte de Vogüé, takes the reader into the country, and finally to a Cossack estate. A very seasonable discussion of the matter of "Psychic Research," summarizing what is known of the phenomena investigated under that name, and laying down the scientific law of belief in respect to them, is contributed by Dr. Jastrow, and should be useful to those who are superstitiously inclined. The great emphasis which he lays upon the necessity of a certain technical training in these problems before any judgment should be made at first hand, conveys a much-needed warning.

—In his timely essay on Saturn's rings, in *Harper's*, Prof. George H. Darwin of Trinity College, Cambridge, has done a real service in popularizing the results of the abstruse mathematical researches of Laplace, Roche, and Maxwell on these bodies. New light is thrown on the interpretation of Laplace's well-known labors, and the discovery, as it may be termed, which Prof. Darwin has made, of the significant work of M. Édouard Roche, is duly emphasized. This man of genius, as he is called, published, or rather entombed, all his papers in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences of Montpellier, an old city in the south of France. So little known are they that Prof. Darwin says he has not yet met a single English mathematician who has read them. So long ago as 1848, Roche investigated the effects of the attraction of a planet upon the figure of its satellite, rendering it oviform, and determined the limiting degree of this elongation, or, what is the same thing in the terrestrial system, the limiting proximity of the moon to the earth. This Prof. Darwin terms Roche's limit; and the conclusion is that if, anywhere in the heavens, matter is found circulating about a planet inside of this limit, it can only be in the form of rocks, dust, and fragments. Saturn is the only such body, and the only planet with rings; and the belief is thus justified that Saturn's rings consist of dust and fragments. This is recognizable as the accepted view of astronomers to-day, but it is such in consequence of the researches of Maxwell, which thus were antedated nearly a decade by those of Roche. Maxwell showed, too, that a spreading of the rings, both inward and outward, was a theoretical result of the inevitable impacts between the constituent meteorites. As the periphery of the outer rings already lies near Roche's limit, the spreading must in time carry many meteorites beyond. Here will exist no obstacle to their aggregation into a definite body, and a ninth satellite of Saturn may thus be formed. The inward spreading will continue until the meteorites reach the outer regions of the planet's atmosphere, where, heated by friction, they will disintegrate, and fall upon Saturn as dust. The evolution of the remote future may thus rob the Saturnian system of the unique charm of its rings, and an additional plain satellite will form the only relic.

— The June *Atlantic* opens with an account of the Eiffel Tower, in which the history of its construction is narrated; but, after reading it, one should turn to the end of the magazine, where he will find a clever translation, in the Contributors' Club, of François Coppée's striking poem upon this "Yankee's Dream," in which sarcasm and patriotic feeling and criticism of materialism are cunningly blended to make this wonder of the Exposition contemptible. The two views, both well expressed, will thus be brought side by side. The most unusual and pleasantest article is a short sketch by Prof. C. E. Norton, in which he pays a tribute to the Venetian antiquarian scholar, Rawdon Brown, and tells how the latter found the tombstone of "banished Norfolk," in search of whose resting-place Brown had left England in his early days, and had in the course of it found Venice so enchanting that, although he lived fifty years longer, he never revisited his native country. The remainder of the number is devoted to "solid" reading. "The German Gymnasium's" methods of work are detailed with the carefulness of a prospectus; the origin of the tales of the 'Thousand and One Nights' is speculated upon by a scholarly pen; the relations of Church, State, and School, made a current question by the parochial-school agitation in Massachusetts, are treated in the broad manner and after the philosophical conception of Dr. Mulford; the city of Birmingham is historically and socially analyzed and eulogized; and the traits of the Australasian colonists are described and their future slightly forecast in the second article of Prof. Royce. These valuable articles exhibit the variety and seriousness which often characterize this magazine, and literature is represented by the serials of Henry James and Mr. Bynner.

—The *Century* is exceedingly rich in articles of interest and value. Mr. Kennan opens the subject of the ill-famed Kara mines, but in the present instalment advances no further than description of the country and of the interior of some of the prisons, of one of which he makes a sickening recital. The philanthropy of New York is illustrated by an able paper upon the work done by women for women in this city, and its interest is enhanced by some thoughtful but disturbing reflections upon the nature of the problem to be met. Entirely different in attraction is the sketch of the English bloodhound, with excellent cuts, from the pen of an enthusiastic lover of the breed, which is

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represented as far from the terrible creature that our legends of the Cuban slave-hunting variety have made familiar. The author advocates their employment in tracking criminals, and does not despair of their capacity to be specially trained to follow "the clean boot," even over the stones of London pavements. The artistic article is upon Corot, and is thorough in its treatment, mingling the biographical, the critical, and the personal strains of interest in a masterly way. The presentation of the claims of idealism in landscape is admirable in clearness and well brought home by reference to Corot's work, so that we would gladly make extracts did our space permit. The closing years of Gen. Lee's life are sympathetically written of by Mrs. Preston, whose opportunities for observation were great; and several characteristic anecdotes, slight in themselves, but illustrative of a kind and honorable nature, are added to our knowledge of Lee's personality. The Lincoln Life takes up the critical subject of Chase's candidacy for the Presidency, with great consideration for Chase; and at the end there is an appreciative note of an American astronomer, S. W. Burnham, whose work, both from its conditions and results, makes an interesting story.

—*Scribner's* presents this month the first of its long-announced series of papers upon Electricity, and devotes its initial paper to a brief account of the instruments, simple characteristics, and methods of measurement of the force in its modern applications. To judge by the present paper, the topic will not prove easy reading. A very useful article is the full account of the Building and Loan Associations which have had so useful and prosperous a career, and seem likely to prove of vastly greater value in the immediate future. The Sicilian town of Castrogiovanni, the ancient Enna, gives material for an excellent and out-of-the-way travel paper, in which the historical variety and the rare characteristics of the island are prominently dealt with. The most important contribution, however, is Prof. Drummond's description of the Arab slave trade, now working untold misery in Africa and depopulating whole districts of the interior by means of the utmost barbarity. He quotes from unquestionable authorities the scenes which he brings forward, and reminds us of what is being done or proposed by European Powers for the suppression of this trade; he agrees that a resort to physical force is now in some measure necessary, but he nevertheless repeats his conviction that the long-established peace policy of the British Anti-Slavery Society is to be adhered to, in spite of all temptations to radical measures. At the close of his cruel story he makes a vigorous appeal to this country for assistance, and expresses the hope that our national policy of not meddling in foreign affairs will not be interpreted as cutting us off from participation in the common humane efforts of foreign nations when our aid may be of value. Mr. Schuyler, in his second paper on Tolstoi, treats at large of the quarrel between him and Turgeneff, and holds out hopes of his return to literary labors.

—The list of really good historical text-books receives a useful addition in Mr. D. H. Montgomery's 'Leading Facts in French History' (Ginn & Co.). It is a marked advance on any available work of its scope. The author has shown competent judgment in the choice of his facts, and his style is clear and interesting. The proportions are well observed, and the political significance of events is given due prominence in his treatment. So far as we have noticed, unusual accuracy has been achieved; yet there are one or two details to which attention may be called. Mr. Montgomery depicts with considerable vividness the apprehensions of the immediate end of the world which beset men as the year 1000 approached. Our faith in this commonplace of mediæval history has been considerably shattered by the painstaking investigations of Orsi ('L'Anno Mille'), Roy ('L'An Mille'), and H. von Eicken, who have examined the evidence as regards Italy, France, and Germany respectively, and pronounced it totally inadequate, and dismissed this favorite and picturesque generalization as a myth of modern historians. We do not think that the evidence warrants quite so positive a conclusion, but there can be no doubt that the prevalence and depressing effects of this fear have been greatly exaggerated. One of the proofs, the use of the phrase, "appropinquante fine mundi," in the beginning of bequests, is shown to be no proof, as its use is general all through the Middle Ages. The coronation of Charlemagne in 800 is spoken of as a revival of "the title of Emperor of the West." But this title was not only not used, but contrary to the fundamental theory of the time. Mr. Montgomery indicates the pronunciation of French names by a phonetic spelling. It seems to us that in most cases that is best left to the teacher. Without the guidance of the living voice, any phonetic spelling is apt to lead the pupil to adopt a "tertium quid" which is neither French nor English, and would be equally unintelligible to hearers of either race. Feudalism is certainly misapprehended when it is described as "giving every man his due place and work. If he was able he rose to the top; if he was incapable he sank to the bottom." That does not describe a society organized on the principle of *status*. It is an error, or, at any rate, misleading, to say that Rabelais was at one time a "mendicant friar." We regret that Mr. Montgomery ended his narrative with the establishment of the Third Republic; a brief account of the last eighteen years would have added much to the interest and value of his work.

—There have been in late numbers of the *Temps* a series of short articles, "Billets du Matin," signed T., which is, if the *Paris* is well informed, the initial of M. André Theuriet. One of these, which appeared on May 9, is a note from Renan addressed to the writer, apparently in answer to an invitation to visit the Exposition. After saying that a return of illness has kept him so far from visiting "cette chère Exposition," which he blesses for bringing a little joy, and forgetfulness, and cordiality, and sympathy into human life, M. Renan goes on:

"I saw the preparations for it, some weeks ago, from the height of the Trocadéro: it affected me like the *Villa Adriana*, like one of those holidays of the time of Hadrian, brilliant, a little composite, eclectic to excess, but which we regard with tenderness as the last smiles of a world that is coming to its end. But even supposing that the Exposition of 1889 shall be the last time that men shall come together to give themselves up to the sports and merriment of childhood, the melancholy in this thought will not be of a nature to make it less poetic or less suggestive to us. And then, after all, who knows the future? You think me more a pessimist than I am. I am indeed alarmed at seeing so stately a tradition as that of the French Royalty handed on to a sovereign so narrow and so light-minded, so accessible to calumny, so open to surprise, as the populace, represented by universal suffrage. But I do not deny that the present hour has its advantages and its consolations. Liberty is greater than it has ever been in this country, or, perhaps, anywhere. The exaggerated criticisms which have been made upon the present régime have sprung from minds ignorant of the past and over-confident of the future. If this only lasts! —that is the sole misgiving that need trouble our content. If it concerned only our miserable selves, we might scoff at foresight, and take chances, and run risks. But it concerns the interests and destinies of France. When I turn the page of the *Temps* on which I read those consoling reports of holiday-making, that fine speech of M. Carnot's, I find this under the heading 'Saint-Ouen':

M. le général Boulanger.....1,043 Élu.
M. Naquet, boulangiste..... 981 "
M. Laguerre, boulangiste.... 981 "
M. Déroulède, boulangiste... 979 "

Some of those to whom I have spoken of this have told me that Saint-Ouen is not a very enlightened spot. That is possible; but I fear that there are in France a great many districts that are, in point of politics, not much more enlightened than Saint-Ouen."

—He concludes, in words which we will not translate, as follows:

"Voilà pourquoi, par moments, je ne peux m'empêcher de voir, entre les rayons de ce beau soleil couchant, un nuage sombre frangé d'or d'où pourrait bien sortir un *rokh* qui emporterait tout. Enfin, continuons d'espérer en la raison, et croyez à ma vive amitié."

How far this rather gloomy letter represents M. Renan's mood when he is sick, and how far an habitual mood, we will not say. One would not be in any haste to say even how much of it he believes to be serious, for M. Renan is so often and so much a *persifleur* as to provoke the suspicion that a good deal of his gloom is "only his fun." But it is pleasant to think that, however sincere his pessimism may be, it is not without its consolations, and that if he is cast down by the Republic and its prospects, he is not destroyed.

THE ART AND INDUSTRIES OF JAPAN.

The Industries of Japan, together with an Account of its Agriculture, Forestry, Arts, and Commerce. From travels and researches undertaken at the cost of the Prussian Government. By J. J. Rein, Professor of Geography in the University of Bonn. With 44 illustrations and 3 maps. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1889.

Japan and its Art. By Marcus B. Huish, LL.B. London: The Fine Art Society. 1889.

GERMAN thoroughness of research, and a willingness to go deep and to search far, even when immediate profit is not to be looked for, are pleasantly characteristic of Professor Rein's second treatise. The first, which we reviewed in a previous number, is now declared to have been deliberately undertaken as a "preliminary study towards a better understanding of the various phenomena of industrial life"—namely, in Japan. The present volume has to do with the phenomena in question.

Half of the volume is devoted to agricultural industries, which important contribution to knowledge is divided as follows: In the first place, there is a but too brief essay on Japanese agriculture in general. Such evidences of minute and careful observation there are that one could wish that it had been allowed to go further into detail. Neither is it hard reading. By some process of sublimation different from ordinary translation from one language into another, the English style is made pleasant and readable, and one not necessarily agricultural in his tastes finds himself reading these pages as if of an amusing book of travels. This is followed by a good, solid discussion of the food-plants of Japan, under which head are included especially those which are used mainly by the people themselves, the exportation plants being generally excluded. Grains, starch-producing bulbs, fruits, and the like; then articles of food and luxury prepared by some chemical or other process from the natural productions, from the simplest prepa-

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ration of tea through all the fermented and distilled drinks—the whole supply of the people's food as obtained from the vegetable kingdom is contained in this discussion. It is interesting to observe how practical has been the writer's observation. Thus, he cannot write upon rice without pausing a moment in his exposition of the method of its cultivation to tell us how it is cooked—advice by no means superfluous to Americans, who (at the North at least) are apt to make a horrible porridge of rice, and most of whom do not even know what its proper cooking and serving is.

The third department deals with "plants of commerce," by which is meant the articles that are exported or exportable—or so it seems to be intended. Tea, tobacco, different drugs, different oil-producing plants, different fibre-producing plants, are included in this chapter; it being assumed that rice and pulse, and such articles of food, can hardly, in our time at least, be exported from a thickly settled country like Japan, and that the commerce of the West with the sunrise country can only be in such productions of the soil as are costly in comparison to their bulk. The author tells us a hundred good stories as he goes on with his examination, enlivening his mass of statistics with the most interesting, though brief, accounts of manners and customs in connection with the subject in hand. Thus, the Japanese smoking apparatus is the subject of an entertaining little discussion, and we are told that the author's refusal of the constantly offered whiff of tobacco excited great surprise among the Japanese, "for they can hardly imagine a foreigner who does not like tobacco." In this case we can imagine that the surprise was about as great as among his own friends at home. A non-smoker in the University of Bonn must have been nearly as remarkable as in Japan. It appears, too, that the Japanese still use an expression equivalent to the ancient English phrase, "drinking tobacco"; further, that in Germany the earliest used phrase for smoking had the same signification, and Freytag is cited as having told us as much in his 'Bilder aus der Deutschen Vergangenheit.' It is well pointed out how liable to change is the Japanese production of drugs and similar high-priced articles, on account of the modifications in Japanese life and manners now going on, and so uncertain in their results. Thus ginseng, which has been so much in demand in Japan that the production has not been more than enough for home consumption, the demand for it in China being meanwhile so great that the United States alone are put down as having sent $700,000 worth in 1877, is passing out of favor in Japan because of the introduction of European ideas of medicine. The free and rapid growth of the camphor tree in the southern part of the empire; the large production of hemp, and the skill that has been shown in producing from it "fine white textiles, not much inferior to good European linen"; cotton cultivation; and an admirably suggestive account of an enormous number of fibrous plants, make up the greater part of this important chapter.

The next division has to do with cattle-raising and silk-growing, of which, perhaps, the most generally interesting part is the discussion of the silk-producing caterpillar, called the *yama mayu*, a creature which feeds on the green leaves of the oak. The author thinks that the product of this insect is less important than has been asserted, and tells us of the complete failure to naturalize the creature in Europe to any profitable extent. There is mentioned another wild silkworm of Japan, which feeds upon the leaves of the chestnut, walnut, and other trees; but it does not seem to be recognized as of importance. The chapter on forestry deals with timber-growing, carpenter-work, house-building, etc., which leads to a separate discussion, on different lines, of the individual trees which the author thinks most important for foreigners to investigate. And in this connection it may be said that a system of cross-references would be a useful addition to this book, for these trees come under consideration in several different chapters. It is true that, in addition to an index which is rather unusually full and presumably accurate, there is a table of contents more useful than is common, as the sub-sections are mentioned, and the number of the opening page of each.

Following immediately upon the essay on trees is a chapter devoted to Japanese gardening, which, with its account of the dwarfed plants and the highly artificial, small-scale horticulture of the Japanese, is oddly remote from the practical and commercial character of what has gone before. The word "nanisation" is introduced to express the dwarfing of large trees, which, as is well known, is a special aim of Japanese gardening, and with which our author quarrels more, perhaps, than is advisable. He seems to think that the Japanese care only for the unnatural and the forced plant. Although he continually admits, and even insists upon, the love of these people for free and wild nature, yet, when he is dealing with the gardeners, he appears to think it bad taste in them to enjoy these *tours de force*, these pine trees and bamboos that would go under a tumbler, and aged forest trees not more than five inches high. He quotes Kaemper's account of the box he saw, four inches long and one inch and a half broad, in which were growing together a bamboo, a pine tree, and a plum tree in flower. Now, the Japanese, in their crowded country (which, as our author himself states in another place, supports a large population on one-fifth only of its surface, the rest being taken up with forests and wild land), have always been somewhat in the condition of the inhabitants of our cities. Land is precious to them, and the piece of ground that one takes up for his garden must be utilized to the utmost. Mr. Hamerton may be right enough in his frequently expressed contempt for gardens, and his preference for a "mile of wild trout stream" over the most beautiful decorative grounds; but there is among the Japanese no lack of appreciation of the wild trout stream, the mountain forest, the savage gorge, the snowclad peak. In all these things they are as advanced as Europeans, while in all the matters of decoration properly so called they are immeasurably in advance of them.

It comes, then, with rather poor grace from a European, and most of all from a German—that is, from a native of the least artistic of European countries — this somewhat supercilious setting down of Japanese garden fancies as necessarily inferior to the European idea. The fancy for dwarf gardening is a whim, like another, and the Japanese, with their love for nature and for decorative art, are entitled to as many whims of this sort as they can be accused of. No doubt, the dwarf tree, or group of dwarf trees, is not the thing that we care most to study in Japanese decorative design; but this is because we are not in the way of learning anything from it, not because it is in itself either ugly or uninteresting. A similar bit of Western conceit is to be seen in the remarks upon the Japanese arrangement of cut flowers. We are told that the enjoyment of beautiful flowers is common, and that what is admired is their individual beauty or their natural combinations. But another sentence states that the "arrangement and coloring of bouquets is not understood by the Japanese." Let us now insert "fortunately" after "is," and this sentence will be in keeping with the facts that precede and follow it. The actual fact is, that the arranging of fresh flowers is a very special art, carefully taught, among the Japanese.

There is a brief chapter on mining, which includes mention of potter's clay, porcelain clay, and the quarrying and extraction of stones, whether for building or decorative purposes; and following this comes that part of the book which will, perhaps, have the most interest for Western people, namely, the account of art industry and related occupations. This is brief, compared with what has been given in other works, in English and French, but it has the peculiar advantage of having been composed on the spot (at least to all appearance), and of being authentic as far as it goes. Moreover, it is devoted entirely to facts about the manufacture and decoration of the objects described, with no attempt to describe the legendary and mythological decorations with which they are covered, or the excellences of the different manufactures. The writer, with praiseworthy thoroughness, describes what he has seen and has learned at first hand, enlivening his narrative by allusions to the more entertaining peculiarities of the delicate work of the Japanese. Thus he speaks of that property of the magical mirrors of showing in the reflections of the face the patterns in relief on the back; he alludes to that peculiarity of bronze that it is freely worked with hammer and chisel as well as with the burin, and he amuses himself and his readers by a description of those peculiar rock-crystal balls, increasing in value according to a scale out of all proportion to their increasing size, which, although not limited to the modern far East, are almost so in the experience of collectors and amateurs. Finally, although it has been said above that but little space is given to the subjects treated in Japanese art, yet it must be stated that mention is made of a few of those plants and birds, whether real or fabulous, and a few of those conventional scenes and formal patterns, which enter most freely into their decoration. It is fortunate that so little of this is done. Our author's art criticisms are extremely conservative, and are those which one might expect from Mark Twain's favorite Sunday-school superintendent, rather than from a student of Eastern art. Thus, he is absolutely certain that the disposition of an artist, whether Western or Eastern, to deal with "dreadful scenes where blood and the odor of death prevail" is to be always reprobated, and he asserts in the same sentence that this taste has never found favor with the Japanese; both of which statements are as untrue as it is possible for statements to be. Japanese pictorial art is assuredly not without representations of those atrocious cruelties which are almost peculiar to Eastern justice and Eastern tyranny, as compared with the European government and administration of law, at least of modern times.

It is certainly not for criticism of Japanese art that we recommend any one to study this book, but for its minute and evidently thoroughly studied accounts of the artistical and industrial processes involved. For example, the account of lacquer ware, although not by any means the only long and minute description of its manufacture that we have, has every appearance of being the most carefully verified of all; and the brief account of the methods of weaving certain textile fabrics has all the appearance of remarkable accuracy. In

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this connection, too, one is glad to perceive that the value and merit of recent Japanese industrial art are recognized. One paragraph on page 306 states the whole case accurately as regards this very industry of decorative lacquer. It was feared, at the time of the breaking up of the old order of things, from 1868 to 1870, that soon the last worker in fine lacquer would have disappeared from Japan; but, our author goes on, with the new impulse from abroad and the renewed care for their old art on the part of the Japanese nobles, who were now newly enriched, artistic productions in lacquer ware were "once more made to pay, and the result is that to-day there are *makiyeshi* in Japan whose works may be placed side by side with the best of olden times." Now, this is strictly true, and it is good to see that our author, who apparently has not a quick eye for minute discriminations in decorative art, should have perceived or have learned this fact. The modern lacquers are not exactly like the old ones. Nobody ought to expect to find modern lacquers precisely the same as those of one hundred and fifty years ago, unless they are minute copies of given ancient specimens. The modern work in fine lacquer ranks with the ancient in design, in minuteness, in finish, in all that makes work admirable. Whether it is equal in refined taste or not, is a question which different amateurs will answer in different ways.

The work of Mr. Huish is in a sense the complement of the one last described. It is a good embodiment and condensation of the general stock of European knowledge and conjecture about Japan, derived from the stories of travellers, the partial translation of documents, the minute study of works of art, and the comparison of statements of different European authors. In the European languages there exists already a considerable body of critical and historical analyses of the fine and industrial arts of Japan, and this is constantly undergoing a process of checking and correcting, partly by the aid of educated Japanese who are residing in Europe and America, and partly by the statements of European visitors to Japan. But with these last there is this difficulty, that nearly all of them are persons who have gone to the East to teach and to preach, and not to learn, and who begin with a contempt for all that religion and all that intellectual training which they are bound especially to supersede. These, having the non-artistic European's noble scorn for a dark and non-Caucasian race, go on with the thought that any notice that may be bestowed upon such heathenism, such superstition, as that which is embodied in Japanese literature and art is a favor done it and a great concession to Western curiosity. It must be remembered, too, that translation from an Eastern into a European language is enormously difficult.

The reflection of this partly erroneous, but in the main correct idea, which the Western lovers of decorative art have formed of Japan, of her legends and traditions, and of the true meaning of her refined art, is what is found in Mr. Huish's book. Any cultivated Japanese will point out by the score what he believes to be errors, most of which undoubtedly are errors either in substance or form. The author, who does not pretend to have visited Japan, or to be versed in the language, would probably be as ready as any one to say that even approximate accuracy was most difficult to attain. But, on the other hand, so far as it is instructive to converse with the collector and student of Japanese art, with one who has frequented the shops and the sales of vast London in search of Japanese curios, and who has carried with him in the search the taste and the inquiring spirit of a real lover of art—so far it will be well for every one to become familiar with this book. There will be found in it the discoveries and the ideas of many London specialists, the correcting opinions of a native Japanese student, who is named in the preface; 120 illustrations, mostly very tolerable "process" prints from Japanese drawings, carvings, weapons, and the like; references to many authors who have written about Japan and its arts, together with memoranda as to the value of other books to explain or to illustrate the technical terms and the true feeling underlying all for the value and beauty of Japanese art, which must inspire and edify the reader; and with all this the book is light in the hand and pleasant to look at.

THE CENTURY DICTIONARY.

The Century Dictionary. An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language. Prepared under the superintendence of William Dwight Whitney, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in Yale University. Section I. New York: The Century Co. 1889.

THE Century Company is now about to publish the first section of its encyclopædic lexicon of the English language, and an advance copy has been submitted to the *Nation* for review. This work has extraordinary prestige from the eminence of its editor-in-chief, Prof. W. D. Whitney, and his collaborators, and from its publishers. It has been in active preparation for seven years, and it is said that no American house has undertaken a work of greater magnitude or importance. There is certainly no American house which the public would more confidently expect to carry through such a work with honor.

The sections are bound in flexible cloth, strongly, so as to make a convenient working volume. However high expectations may have been raised, no book-lover will open this section without a glow of pleasure. It is the handsomest dictionary that ever was made. Grimm and Littré are level fields of uniform types. The Historical Dictionary of the Clarendon Press uses freely a large variety of types, and shows a page which is a delight to the eye; but, in addition to all the resources of the printer in types, the 'Century Dictionary' employs those of the engraver. It is full of admirable pictorial illustrations, far superior as works of art to those in any former dictionary, and the paper and presswork correspond. The cuts remind us at once that this is not a simple word-book, a mere dictionary, but an "encyclopedic lexicon." It undertakes to give not only words with their spelling, pronunciation, history, and definitions, but also some account of the objects denoted by the words, and interesting items of information about them, such as are found in encyclopædias. It is not to be classed, therefore, with works of pure linguistic science, with the great historical dictionaries of Grimm and the Philological Society, with which its form and size just now suggested a comparison, but with Webster and his followers, Worcester and the 'Imperial Dictionary.' It is an apotheosis of Webster.

Its purpose is to tell any one who is puzzled with anything he reads or hears in English, exactly what he needs to know in order to understand the matter. He must be able, then, to find any word he looks for. For this the 'Century Dictionary' may be hopefully trusted to its date. Hundreds of new words are made every year. It has, of course, the words in former dictionaries. It has liberally enlarged the number found in other dictionaries of obsolete, dialectic and provincial, colloquial and slang words, especially Americanisms, and has recorded with great fulness the special terms of the sciences, arts, and trades. Specially trained readers have been collecting new words and new meanings for it for many years. It will be strong in phrases, giving important special denotations of the main words. Under *act*, for example, there are described not only *act of God*, *act of grace*, and the like, *Acts of the Apostles*, *Black Acts*, and the like, but *Jekyll's Act*, an English statute of 1736 against liquor-selling, *Riddleberger Act*, *Yazoo Frauds Act*, and others, fifty *acts* or so. About 200,000 separate words and 30,000 phrases are promised. (The 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' of Cassell & Co. is the latest and has the largest vocabulary of the former dictionaries. It gives 180,000 words.) In the portion which we have examined the phrases seem well selected, such as are frequently used and need explanation, and numerous enough. But, of course, they are open to criticism. It is in the nature of the case that everybody finds something to wonder at in the contents of a cyclopædia—the exclusion of this, the inclusion of that. We grumble at our 'Encyclopædia Britannica' for not having an article on a subject in which we are interested, at our 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' for omitting our heroes and filling pages with nobodies. A critic who can find nothing incorrect will find many things omitted. There are important "acts" which are not here. But the comprehensiveness of this work in comparison with its predecessors, and the general good judgment of the editors, cannot be questioned.

Going on with our examination, we look next at the spelling. This is what might be expected from Prof. Whitney. The spellings current in England and America are given. Older and rare spellings are added in different type. The best form is indicated. "The essentially phonetic rule of spelling, that of two or more forms which have equal authority, or are equally supported by usage, the one is to be preferred which is simplest or nearest the phonetic standard, has been adopted." Besides this recognition of the supremacy of reason, of scientific law over living forms of words, attention is carefully called to approved spellings which are in conflict with etymological truth, as the *h* in *aghast*, the *ff* in *afford*, so that the Dictionary is well in line with the best linguistic science in phonology.

Similar remarks may be made about the pronunciation. Prof. Whitney gives this more minutely than it is given by other dictionaries except that of Dr. Murray. Conversational pronunciation is a subject with which the active students of language are specially busy, and it has led to the bringing into prominence great differences of pronunciation among those who have been heretofore considered as using the standard pronunciation of the dictionaries. This standard pronunciation gives mainly the sound of the accented syllables when clearly and forcibly articulated as a trained orator speaks to a large audience. But the phonologists have adopted a new ideal, the natural conversational speech of a gentleman unspoiled by teachers of elocution. The speech of Londoners of this class is carefully recorded, and commended to others as standard English. It is quite different from what has been considered standard English in America, especially in the extent to which the neutral vowel (ŭ in *but*, *burn*) is used. The Londoner begins the Bible thus: "Thŭ Fŭŭst Book ŭv Mosŭs, called Genŭsis. In thŭ bŭginning God creatŭd thŭ heavŭns ŭn

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the ŭŭth." *Circumstance* has but one vowel sound, "cŭŭcŭmstŭnce." As these examples show, *r* after a vowel is silent or sounded ŭ: final *r* is movable and excrescent; thus, in *hair* alone it is silent (hăŭ), but before a vowel, as in *hair oil*, it is sounded. After final *a*, *r* is excrescent before a word beginning with a vowel, as in *idea is* (idear is). Initial *h* may be silent, as in *which*, or movable, as in *home* (*at ome*), *he* or *e*, and the like.

Such speech is now spoken in the south of England. The prevailing forces of our day make for uniformity in language, a general standard for all speakers of English. If it is to be preserved, it is time to record a standard conversational utterance of the unaccented letters. This very difficult and delicate task Prof. Whitney has performed in a manner which will not escape criticism, but which will commend itself to the general judgment of English-speaking men.

In Latin and Greek phrases, like *A fortiori*, which are often now pronounced in the so-called Roman method, and in scientific terms which have no popular pronunciation, but are uttered by scientists and others very much hap-hazard, Prof. Whitney gives a pronunciation according to English analogies. Dr. Murray has described his adventures in search of this kind of knowledge; his appeals to the introducers of such words who tell him they never thought how to pronounce them, and leave it to him; his attending meetings of learned societies, at one of which he heard his word *gaseous* systematically pronounced in six different ways by as many eminent physicists. They would let Prof. Whitney pronounce as he pleases; it is not so certain they will let him correct them. And it is certain that very few of them ever get through all the syllables of any of their sesquipedalia correctly according to the English pronunciation.

The authorities in favor of the different pronunciations are not given, as in Worcester's Dictionary. We have found it a considerable convenience in Worcester to have them together. The historical side of pronunciation is the least labored of any part of the 'Century Dictionary': how words were pronounced in Shakspere's time, in Chaucer's time, or any time but the present, we are not told. It is a difficult subject — the great Historical Dictionary does not attempt it. Perhaps it would not pay to introduce it even if the materials were at hand, but there are a good many anecdotes which are interesting and noteworthy, and encyclopædic. Doubtless many such will appear; under *oblige*, perhaps, we may find quoted: "It will become your royal mouth better to say *oblige*."

The etymology is the most thoroughly elaborated part of the work. The derivation of each word and its relation to other words in many languages is more thoroughly given than in any other general dictionary, and probably more fully than in any special etymological dictionary, though it is condensed to the last degree. A system of signs is used by which the relations of the words are expressed with algebraic precision and conciseness, so that it does not occupy very much space. The thoroughness consists in handling carefully every part of every word. Not only the principal part, the root part, but every affix and suffix, has its full discussion; and if, upon putting them together, any letter in the word remains unexplained, the origin of that is given. In *amidst*, for example, not only is *mid* traced back to the beginning of things, but the prefix *a*, and the adverbial genitive ending *s*, and these make the whole word in middle English. There is then a special explanation of the final *t*, as a phonetic addition, according to a special law. The work is freshly done on the basis of the latest authorities, with independent judgment and a thorough verification of all the words cited. Original suggestions are not wanting, as that of *akimbo*, based on the earliest passage in which it has been found.

"The hoost . . . set his hond *in kene bowe*.
Woulst thow, said he to Beryn, for to skorne me?".

Here *in kene bowe* is interpreted *with sharp elbow*, an attitude of defiance. So *alewife*, which has been thought an example of transformation by folk etymology from Indian *aloofe*, recorded in 1678, has been found in full form in 1670, "Big-bellied alewives." The scientific philologist will be delighted with the elaboration of every part of the etymology. It is evidently a labor of love with Dr. Scott and his helpers.

The etymology also has its encyclopædic side. The old etymologists have made all sorts of mistakes. A dictionary of etymology naturally is in part a history of vagaries, whims; it runs to anecdotes, to curiosities. And, as errors are infinite in number, it must be selective, and so disappointing to the lover of philological curiosities, who will look for his own favorites and not find them all. Under a^{10} there is quite a full narrative of the way Thomas à Becket came by his present name. The encyclopædist looks for more such. No dictionary has been so liberal in explanation of proper names. Every one seems to be admitted which has been used as a common name, or given rise to a literary adjective. "American" introduces "America," and "America" "Amerigo Vespucci." Here the cyclopædist critic wonders why nothing is said about the contention that "America" is a native word with the aborigines, and was not the name of Vespucci. Lowell talks of "Amphitryon's gold-juice humanized to wine." Here is Amphitryon all right: why not the story of the gold-juice? They are saving it up for the word *gold-juice*, perhaps. That is all right. Under *algebra* there is perhaps the fullest account in any dictionary of the origin of the word, with the minutest explanation of the meaning of the Arabic words from which it is derived, and how *algebra* meant *bone setting*, as well as handling mathematical symbols; but it would not be strange if some critic should find fault because there is no statement of De Morgan's contention that the name originally meant completing the square of an affected quadratic equation, the palmary surgical operation of the Arabic mathematicians of the time. The Philological Society's Dictionary has this advantage in its long columns of quotations, that if the editor does not think an opinion worth introducing into his etymological discussion, he can yet give a quotation which contains it, as Dr. Murray gives this one from De Morgan.

Next come the definitions. There are, in the first place, the definitions of common words, the most difficult and thankless task of the lexicographer. The attempt to give in general terms the connotation of familiar words which skip about day by day from object to object, on the hint of any sort of relation between the objects, is a desperate attempt in the English language. One needs Greek or German, with their free compounds, etymological thickets in whose entanglement one is easily fooled by verbal shadows. The definer is happy who prints nothing more stupid than Dr. Johnson's famous definition of *net*, "a texture woven with large interstices or meshes, used commonly as a snare for animals." There is one class of exceptions to this indefinableness, brief and clear definitions which have been long used in standard manual dictionaries like Johnson and Webster. These have become real meanings by having been authoritatively taught to many generations, even if they were not such at first. The definer of the 'Century Dictionary' does not copy these definitions very freely. He is afraid, perhaps, of infringing copyrights, or, perhaps, sometimes he thinks he can state them in better words. The practical relief from this difficulty of definition comes in two ways. One is the pictures. A single look at one of these engravings makes all plain when a column of words would fail. The other is quotations. For abstract terms there can be no pictures. If one is in doubt about their accurate use, he must have a body of quotations from standard authors in which they and their synonyms occur. Macaulay sends his Johnson to the binder for its fourteenth, or, perhaps, its twentieth cover. He studied the quotations by day and by night. The 'Century Dictionary' has much larger collections of quotations than other works of its kind, and acute and clear discussions of synonyms by Prof. Henry M. Whitney. Workers in English literature, who will accept this book with many thanks, will be sure to wish and hope that the same spirit which has prepared it may by and by give the world an encyclopædic dictionary of literature, in which the chief of our standard authors shall be thoroughly treated, as Homer is in a Homeric dictionary or Shakspere in the Shakspere dictionary, so that they can find every notable passage cited under its important words, and every difficult passage interpreted and explained. Such a work would have been a dream fifty years ago; but scholarship has grown apace in English language and literature, and a corps of American scholars competent for the work and eager for it might now be organized.

We reach at last the encyclopædic definitions, the great bulk of the book. These are the work of specialists in the various departments of science and art. These departments are spoken of as philology, law, biology and zoölogy, anatomy, botany, and other natural sciences, theology and ecclesiastical history, mythology, archæology, fine arts, history. From the nature of the case, as all the words and phrases of the English language are to be treated encyclopædically, the whole body of human thought is to be gone over. 200,000 words and 30,000 phrases will give several millions of definitions. Each of these has been proposed to a specialist as a topic upon which to present the best thought of the present day in the most brief and interesting form. The names of the contributors are a guarantee that the work is thoroughly done. That there are mistakes, shortcomings, neglected topics, is a matter of course. So also in a first section there must be expected occasional unnecessary repetitions and sometimes variations in different parts of articles contributed by different specialists. They will work together more perfectly as they go forward. Particular criticism is reserved. We close this paper with the general judgment that the work thus far meets all reasonable expectations, and when completed it will be the most comprehensive and satisfactory book of general reference yet produced—a book which every one will want, and which ought to have a place in every public library.

RECENT FOLK-LORE PUBLICATIONS.

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The Folk-Lore of Plants. By T. F. Thiselton Dyer. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 12mo, pp. 328.

The Tree of Mythology, its Growth and Fruitage: Genesis of the Nursery Tale, Saws of Folk-Lore, etc. A Study, by Charles De B. Mills. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1889. 8vo, pp. vi, 288.

THERE seems to be no lull in the interest taken in popular tales; collections, real and fictitious, follow each other fast, and no slight labor is needed to sift the contents and coördinate the fresh material. The new science of popular tales has already made its influence felt among collectors, but there is still much to be learned, and there is still among many a hazy idea of the word "popular" or "folk" tales. This is peculiarly true of the author of the first work on our list, who has made an entertaining compilation from earlier works (a small portion of it has not appeared before). The collectors of Irish tales have hitherto been littérateurs who were more concerned with the form of their stories than with their contents, thus divesting them of all scientific value, while at the same time largely increasing their interest for the ordinary reader. One need only compare a story like the "Three Wishes" (p. 235), by W. Carleton, with its sister versions in other languages (Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' lxv, "Godfather Misery," the French "Bonhomme Misère," etc.), to see what a racy local flavor has been imparted to the original theme. The volume before us deals chiefly with that delightful product of the Celtic mind, the fairy, although curdling ghost-stories are not neglected. Only eight of the stories in the book are of general interest—the "Three Wishes" mentioned above; the "Legend of Knockgrafton" (Crane xxvii, "The Two Humpbacks"); the "Three Wild Geese" (Crane xv, "Snow-white-fire-red"); the "Lazy Beauty and her Aunts" (Grimm No. 14, "The Three Spinners"); the "Haughty Princess" (Crane xxix, "The Crumb in the Beard"); "Munachar and Manachar" (Crane lxxviii, "Pitidda"); "Donald and his Neighbors" (Grimm No. 61, "The Little Farmer"), and the "Story of Conneda" (comp. Crane iv, "The Dancing Water, the Singing Apple, and the Speaking Bird"). These tales make us deeply regret that no Irish Grimm has yet garnered the wealth of popular tradition which in England and this country has shrunk to such meagre proportions.

In 'Popular Tales from the Norse' we have an old friend in a new dress worthy of his exceptional character. Two men have been born collectors of popular tales; they were Jacob Grimm and P. C. Asbjörnsen. The tales of the people, viewed through the medium of their own minds, assumed a lovely form without losing any of their own individuality. Asbjörnsen's collection, like Grimm's, has become a classic, and its scientific value is as high as its literary worth. Dasent's translation is worthy of the original, and cannot be too highly praised. The introduction, on the origin and diffusion of popular tales, is left as in the second edition, and the reader will find in it no hint of the interesting theory of Mr. Andrew Lang.

The vein that Mr. Harris opened to the public in his inimitable 'Uncle Remus' continues to be worked—with greater interest, we must confess, to the student of folk-lore than to the general reader. Mr. Harris knew, like Grimm and Asbjörnsen, how to impart a literary form to his stories without impairing their original worth. Of the ten stories given by Fortier, none are comparable in the telling to Mr. Harris's, though four correspond more or less to versions in 'Uncle Remus' (i, ii, iv, vi='Uncle Remus' ii, iv; xv, xx; xx, xxxiv; and vi). No. v is a version of the "Forty Thieves" (episode of the cave opening at the word *sesame*); No. vii is Jones's 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast' xxxviii; No. viii is like the story in Bleek's 'Reynard the Fox in South Africa,' page 16, and Jones's xli; No. ix is a version of the widespread story of "Dr. Knowall" (Grimm, No. 98); and No. x is the story of the transformation of a woman into a monkey. The most interesting of the series is the first, which is a version of the "Wonderful Tar-Baby Story" of "Uncle Remus," but one which proves conclusively the South African origin of it. In Prof. Fortier's version, there is a great drought in the land, and the animals dig a well to obtain water. Compair Lapin refuses to work, on the ground that rabbits do not drink water. He is forbidden to use the well, breaks the command, and evades detection until caught by the "Tar-Baby." Now, a version almost exactly similar is found in the *Folk-Lore Journal*, edited by the working committee of the South African Folk-Lore Society, volume i, page 69; the only difference being that the jackal takes the place of the rabbit and is caught by the tortoise, whose back is covered with a sticky substance from the bee-hive, and who is stationed in the well or pond just on the level of the water, so that the jackal steps on him and sticks fast. Prof. Fortier has added to his stories some interesting Proverbs, Sayings, and Songs. The texts are given in the original dialect, with translation and philological notes, the whole forming a very valuable contribution both to the Creole dialect and to American folk-lore.

Some years ago a writer in the *Nation* (February 23, 1871) called attention to the identity of an Amazonian story, "The Tortoise that outran the Deer," with one found among the negroes of South Carolina. Since then a number of animal stories from the Amazons have been published by the late Prof. Hartt ('Amazonian Tortoise Myths,' Rio de Janeiro, 1875), and Mr. Herbert Smith ('Brazil, the Amazons, and the Coast,' New York, 1879), eight of which are to be found in 'Uncle Remus.' Two explanations of this striking resemblance are possible—one, that the Indians on the Amazons obtained their stories from the African slaves of Brazil; the other, that both Indians and slaves originated them independently. Any collection of Brazilian folk-lore that will throw any light on this interesting question is most welcome. M. Nery has made a very readable little book out of the popular poetry, legends, and fables of Brazil, without, however, any pretension to scientific treatment. Comparatively little is new among the animal stories. The author has himself collected three tortoise myths; the others (nine in number) were gathered by Hartt, Roméro, and Smith. No. 3, "Le Jaboty et le Cerf," is Harris's "Mr. Rabbit finds his match at last"; No. 8 is Harris's "Mr. Rabbit grossly deceives Mr. Fox." The tar-baby story finds an echo in "Le singe et el Mannequin de Cire," where a wax image is put in a tree to keep the birds away from the oranges. The monkey takes the figure for a living being and asks for an orange. Just then the wind blows one down. Then the monkey asks for another, and, not receiving it, throws stones at the figure. The stones stick fast, and then the monkey climbs the tree and attacks the figure, with the result that both fall out of the tree and the monkey receives a good bruising.

In accordance with the most recent theory of mythology, we might define Folk-Lore as the views of primitive man in regard to the world by which he is surrounded. The various kingdoms of nature have all been the object of his simple study, and about them has gathered a mass of popular belief of vast extent and diversity. The animal kingdom has already been the subject of a systematic examination by Prof. De Gubernatis ('Zoölogical Mythology,' London, 1872, 2 vols.), who has also extended his researches into the mythology of the vegetable kingdom ('La Mythologie des Plantes,' Paris, 1878–82, 2 vols.). Limited portions of the latter field have also been treated by many others, notably by Mannhardt in Germany. These works, however, were either attempts to explain the origin of the beliefs by certain theories of mythology, or they were elaborate collections of materials. From none could a methodical view of the whole field be obtained unbiassed by the writer's hobby. For this reason Mr. Dyer's book is all the more welcome—a work as admirable in its conception as in its execution.

His object is to give a brief systematic summary of the various branches of the folk-lore of plants. This he does in twenty-three chapters, beginning with the notions of plant life, and ending with certain mystic plants (hellebore, mandrake, etc.). Between these two extremes may be found every phase of popular belief concerning plants, their virtues as medicine and love-charms, their names and language, their use in ceremonies and in proverbs, their relations to the weather and the calendar, their sacred character and worship—in short, all the forms of superstition which have clustered about the vegetable kingdom. Mr. Dyer has full control of his material, and illustrates each point sufficiently. His examples are drawn from all quarters of the globe, although naturally English plant-lore is most fully represented. The author is well acquainted with the literature of his subject, although he does not seem to know the work of De Gubernatis cited above. He wisely abstains from theories of the origin of plant-lore, and leaves the reader to explain it as he will by reference to solar mythology or survival of savagery. The result is a book delightful to the general reader, and not devoid of scientific value.

We have left ourselves but scant space to speak of Mr. Mills's book, evidently a work of love, on which great pains and care have been lavished. It is in the nature of a general treatise upon mythology, strictly from the standpoint of Müller, Cox, and De Gubernatis, whose exaggerated theories of the solar myth Mr. Mills accepts implicitly. He is, however, acquainted with Mr. Tylor's works, and at times has a glimpse of a theory more rational than that of Cox; yet it is but a glimpse, and the reader will infer that there can be but one explanation of mythology, namely, that based upon the ever-recurring change of night and day or the seasons. Although Mr. Mills's work makes no original contribution to the subject of mythology, and is somewhat rambling in its method, it contains much interesting information, and is likely to foster an inte-

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rest in a subject worthy of study at all times; and just now rather fashionable.

The Constitutional History and Government of the United States: A Series of Lectures by Judson S. Landon, LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

THE lectures of which this book consists were delivered before the senior classes of Union College during the four years in which the author was President *ad interim*. They aim rather at an expository and narrative treatment of well-established facts than at originality; indeed, the ground has been so thrashed over that the latter quality is hardly to be expected. Mr. Landon's style is clear and simple, and if at times slightly colloquial, this is perhaps explained by the fact that the book was not prepared as a treatise, but grew up out of more or less informal "conferences" with pupils. This may account, also, for a certain hastiness of statement which mars passages of the work here and there. To say of Washington that he was "not an educated man" may, in a certain sense, be true, but it is at least misleading unless accompanied by a good deal more explanation than we get. "Not an educated man" is, among educated men, a term of severe criticism. We might apply it without hesitation to the late John Kelly or even to the late Andrew Johnson; but when we hear the seniors of Union College informed curtly that Washington was not an educated man, we receive a shock of that sort of surprise which produces laughter. We feel inclined to beg at least for a suspension of sentence until we know exactly what an educated man would have been towards the close of the last century—in the estimation of the author. So it is rather a hasty way of writing in a treatise of this kind to say of Franklin that, "could he have been the companion of Solomon, Aristotle, and Bacon, he would have analyzed their wisdom and philosophy—universal expert as he was—and given them such suggestions as would have made them his debtors." No doubt he would, and no doubt he was able to do so without being their companion at all; but this is certainly not a felicitous way of impressing upon us either the wisdom of Franklin or the judicial nicety of the author.

A publicist runs considerable risks when he stereotypes the flowing and familiar discourse of a lecturer to college students into a constitutional treatise. But we find other evidences of the author's haste. He has a theory of the constitutional development of the United States which he seems to think is so generally adopted, or so necessarily true, that it may be laid down without proof, or even against the evidence. This is, that in the period between the inauguration of Jefferson and the outbreak of the rebellion, the growing strength of the national Government, which burst upon the world like a revelation in 1861, was the work of the Supreme Court. His opinion appears to be that, during this interregnum, the executive and legislative parts of the Government went to sleep, while the Supreme Court went on consolidating, unifying, and strengthening the Government. That we may do him no injustice, we quote:

"I shall show hereafter that the Supreme Court of the United States grew to be great, but every other department failed to develop into anything like a dominant and controlling factor in the nation's life. The Constitution was so construed in times of peace as to stand constantly in the way of everything except the merely routine work. Great struggles and great debates there were in Congress, but as a general rule the do-nothing policy, both at home and abroad, prevailed. Whenever any question arose between the nation and the States, the States usually had their power and jurisdiction conceded, except indeed when the question was brought into the Supreme Court" (p. 133).

This theory flies in the face of the historical record which the author gives immediately after stating it. Neither the *laissez-faire* theories of the Jeffersonian school, nor the State-rights theories of politicians of the later Southern school, interfered with the steady growth of nationalism in Congress or the executive, any more than it did in the judicial branch. Jefferson himself purchased Louisiana, while doubting the constitutionality of the act, thus giving the first impetus to the enormous territorial expansion which is partly the key to the subsequent development of national strength; the war of 1812, if it did not seem at the time to redound very much to the national glory, established the position of the country as a naval power; the Hartford Convention ended in smoke; the Monroe Doctrine made its appearance; Protection consolidated the great manufacturing interests of the country behind the national bulwark of the tariff; Andrew Jackson baffled the schemes of the nullifiers; Texas was appropriated, the Mexican war waged; and, finally, through all this period the slaveholders, while preaching State rights, were at the same time, like shrewd politicians, consolidating the national powers in their own interest. The period was not one of what the author calls "Jeffersonian doze," but of great activity in every department; and this, when the crisis came, showed itself at once in the immense rising against the South's pretensions. No doubt it seemed at the time that the party of State rights were making great headway; but in any retrospect now it is impossible not to see that the original Confederacy was all the time being consolidated into a powerful state, with all its pride, conscious vitality, and aspirations for greatness. Exactly what part the Supreme Court played in all this, we would not undertake to say, but it is remarkably unsafe to insist that it was by the decrees of a judicial tribunal, however great, that such a consummation was brought about.

In the last chapter, the author discusses a question raised by Mr. Bryce's recent treatise—how it is that our system seems less and less fertile in great public men. He agrees with Mr. Bryce that the fact is so; that while, in the leading western European nations, government is carried on by a class of men who represent the best ability, character, and education which the state produces, in the United States men of this type are for the most part not found in politics. Does this show a danger to the system, or not? The author takes the optimistic view that, our Government being one of law constitutionally expounded by judges, we can get along with second-rate politicians when another country could not. To this the reply would be that it is not a question of getting along, but whether the character of our politicians does not imply a decadence in government which must show itself in their work. To our minds, it is an axiom that second-rate men must produce second-rate work; and to say that we get along very well on the whole with politics in their present condition, is rather a proof that we flourish in spite of this feature of our Government, and that, if we could command a higher order of political ability, we should flourish infinitely more. You cannot get figs from thistles, and when you admit that a system does not produce statesmen, you admit that in so far it is diseased. Examine into the causes, and a cure may be found; but to say that we need no cure, or that there are some other things in some other country just as bad (a favorite mode of meeting difficulties of this sort), may do very well for the stump, but not for sober discussion.

The narrative portion of the work is well, if not always accurately done, and the chapters on the Supreme Court give a compendious account of its more important decisions.

A Concise Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer's Iliad. By Thomas D. Seymour. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1889.

THERE are men who are old enough to remember when the chief apparatus of the schoolboy consisted of the grammar and the dictionary. In rare instances "Lempriere" was added to the outfit; but that was all. Now, when a young fellow leaves school for college, he has made a large collection of text-books—first books, second books, third books, grammars of several degrees of strength, exercises proportioned to every stage of development, helps to this, aids to that, introductions to the other. There is no use in quarrelling with this state of things. It is a manifestation of a general system of subdivision such as we find in the modern method of gymnastic training. The old plan of dictionary and grammar is gone with the old plan of dog and gun, and the only thing we have to see to is that the apparatus is good and cheap.

The last piece of classical apparatus we have seen has the warrant of its goodness in its maker's name. Prof. Seymour knows his Homer, and his 'Concise Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer' may be trusted. The special interest, however, of the little book lies in the very strong indication which it gives of a need that has arisen out of the advanced scholarship of the day. In the old days of dictionary and grammar, boys used to read more of Homer than they have done since the appearance of Anthon's edition. It is a melancholy fact that the fewest young college men—even of those who are especially addicted to Greek—have read Iliad and Odyssey from A to Ω. They have so much to do with the dialect, the versification, and the Homeric Question that they have not had the time to read Homer in those long stretches that are needful for any true enjoyment of the great poems. To meet this want, Homer readings have been instituted—some of them eminently successful—in which gifted professors translate Homer to admiring circles. But this is not sailing on the ocean of the epic in any true sense. At best one is a passenger, not a mariner, and men must read for themselves, not be read to—must hold the tiller and handle the ropes, if they are to understand the true zest of the voyage.

Now, the difficulty is the vocabulary—a difficulty of the imagination, it is said; but seasickness is a trouble of the imagination, and no less real on that account. It is well enough to say that any student who will resolutely go to work will find the trouble of the vocabulary disappearing. Many words, at first strange, are repeated so often that they become familiar after a short time, and the hardest words being still crosses, still *x*'s to the etymologists, may be counted out; so that between the recurring words and the inexplicable words the student finds that he is making rapid progress, and can read first one, then two, then three books at a sitting. But resolute students, like resolute seamen and resolute swimmers, are not common, and the pedagogic mind of to day says, "Abandon the moral question and make the thing as easy as possible. Turning over the leaves of a dictionary is a nuisance without

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any corresponding advantage. Let us make the work as light as may be, knowing that if the boy has once read his first six books of the 'Iliad,' he will find the other eighteen comparatively easy work."

To this good end the 'Concise Vocabulary' has been devised, and with the aid of such a compact manual it is supposed that the learner will have little trouble in getting at the sense, or what Prof. Seymour takes to be the sense, of the words in their connection. Prof. Seymour's understanding of the first six books of the 'Iliad' is as good a sense as boys are entitled to, and they are saved the trouble of picking out the proper meaning from the tangled mass of the larger lexicon, or even the Homeric Dictionary. But if we are to make this part of the work so much easier, why not follow a plan which has been tried in Germany—that of putting the vocabulary in the order of the verses, as Scheindler has recently done? To be sure, this is perilously like an interlinear translation; but an interlinear translation is not a bad thing, if there is no repetition, and if the student is steadily referred to the place in which the words first occur. Indeed, among many methods of mastering the vocabulary of a language, few are practically better than this; and if the teacher punishes the student, or the student punishes himself, for forgetfulness by assigning as a task the committing to memory of the verses in which the forgotten words occur, the attention will be much quickened. That Prof. Seymour's plan has some advantages we are not disposed to deny. Still, as has been suggested above, it is open to the objection that all ready-made learning has, and the intellectual fibre will not be so tough as it became in the old way. Some day the student must pass from the 'Concise Vocabulary' to the special dictionary, perhaps even to the great 'Lexicon Homericum,' and the disillusionment that is sure to follow will perhaps make him abandon his Homeric studies in disgust.

The Annual Statistician for 1889. San Francisco: L. P. McCarty.

MUCH industry is evidently employed in collecting and compiling information for this work, but so long as it is not edited with more intelligence than has hitherto been expended upon it, it can never become the standard reference annual which its publisher evidently thinks it already is. If an American statistical publication cannot be depended upon to state correctly the number of Representatives in the Congress of the United States, it is not easy to imagine in what respects it can be relied upon. Yet on page 119 it is said that the total number of the Representatives in the Fifty-first Congress is 334, of whom 172 are Republicans and 162 are Democrats. The list of Representatives published on pages 118 and 119 contains only 325, the correct number, of whom 166, including the Representatives from the Third and Fourth West Virginia Districts (in which districts certificates have recently been issued to the Democratic candidates) are designated as Republicans, and 159 as Democrats. How the number 334 was obtained we do not know. Even if the eight Territorial delegates were added to the true number of Representatives, the total would be only 333.

In his advertisement the publisher of the 'Statistician' claims that in no other similar publication has the information been corrected down to so late a date as was that which it contains. On page 33 appears the act of 1792 designating what officers shall act as President in the event of the death, resignation, or inability of both the President and Vice-President, and fixing the day for the meeting of the electoral colleges. A footnote directs the reader to the index for a reference to the act of 1886, which substitutes the Secretary of State, and after him the other Cabinet ministers in order, in place of the President of the Senate, and after him the Speaker of the House, as the officer to discharge the duties of the President in the event of the death, resignation, or inability of both President and Vice-President. But there is no hint that the remaining portion of the old act of 1792 has been in great part repealed, and that the electoral colleges now meet in January and not as formerly in December.

Most well-informed persons know that in the United States generally the law places fewer obstacles in the way of early marriages than it does in almost any European country. The table on page 307 which purports to give the "marriage age" in different countries, states that in the United States it is 21 for males and 18 for females, while, according to the same table, in Spain, Greece, Portugal, and Switzerland, and among the Catholic population of Hungary, it is 14 for males and 12 for females, in Austria 14 for both sexes, in Germany 18 for males and 14 for females, in Belgium and France and among the Protestant population of Hungary it is 18 for males and 15 for females, and in Russia and Saxony it is 18 for males and 16 for females. The editor of such a book as the 'Statistician' professes to be, ought to know in the first place that there is no such thing as "marriage age" for the United States as a whole, and that the age at which marriage may be lawfully contracted is a matter prescribed by State law, and that the laws of the different States name different ages; and secondly, that the ages he gives for the various countries of Europe are in most and probably in all cases the minimum ages at which minors may marry with the consent of their parents or guardians, while the age given for the United States is probably about the maximum required by any State for the issue of licenses to persons who have not the consent of their parents or guardians. Where the parents or guardians consent, or where they do not consent and the marriage is actually celebrated, whether without a license or with a license issued inadvertently or procured by fraud, the marriage will in many States be valid if the parties have attained the age required by the common law—namely, 14 for males and 12 for females.

Mistakes will happen in the most carefully edited of books as in the best regulated of families, but there are pardonable and unpardonable blunders. The errors we have referred to above are cited not as being by any means all we have noticed in a far from exhaustive examination of the book, but as strongly marked specimens of the kind of misstatements which would have surely been detected and corrected had the manuscript or the proof-sheets been subjected to careful and intelligent revision.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. Moral Order and Progress: An Analysis of Ethical Conceptions. London: Trübner & Co.
Archer, T. A. The Crusade of Richard I. 1189–92. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Balg, G. H. A Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German. Part VII. B. Westermann & Co.
Barham, R. H. The Ingoldsby Legends: or, Mirth and Marvels. Frederick Warne & Co. 75 cents.
De Quincey, T. Murder Considered as one of the Fine Arts. Three Memorable Murders. The Spanish Nun. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fiske, J. The War of Independence. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Goddard, F. B. The Art of Selling; also, Good Buying. Franklin Publishing Co.
Gray, M. The Reproach of Annesley. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Henley, W. E. A Book of Verses. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Horn, H. J. Painting as a Fine Art. J. W. Bouton.
Kemble, Frances Anne. Far Away and Long Ago. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Laing, S. The Heimskringla, or the Sagas of the Norse Kings. From the Icelandic of Snorre Sturlason. 2d ed., revised, with notes, by Rasmus B. Anderson. In 4 vols. Scribner & Welford. $20.
Littledale, R. F. The Petrine Claims: A Critical Inquiry. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Metcalf—Bright. Language Exercises. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Phin, J. An Exact Reprint of the Famous Century of *Inventions of the Marquis of Worcester (first published in 1663).* The Industrial Publication Society. $1.
Prévost, L'Abbé. The Story of Manon Lescaut and of the Chevalier des Grieux. From the edition of 1753. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Rae, W. F. Miss Bayle's Romance. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Renan, E. History of the People of Israel, from the Reign of David up to the Capture of Samaria. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Schaff, Prof. P. The Progress of Religious Freedom as Shown in the History of Toleration Acts. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Schipper, J. Englische Metrik, in historischer und systematischer Entwickelung dargestellt. B. Westermann & Co.
Scudder, H. E. George Washington. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Shields, Dr. C. W. Philosophia Ultima, or Science of the Sciences. Vol. II. The History of the Sciences and the Logic of the Sciences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.
Short, F. On the Making of Etchings. William Evarts Benjamin.
The Devil and I: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

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